

PERIODICAL ROOM
GENERAL LIBRARY
UNIV. OF MICH.

JAN 8 1940

VOLUME IV

NUMBER 1

SOCIAL EDUCATION

ICIAL JOURNAL, NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

JANUARY 1940

LISHED FOR THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION AND THE
ONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES BY THE AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

SOCIAL EDUCATION

Official Journal, National Council for the Social Studies

ERLING M. HUNT, *Editor*

FRANCES S. BROWNLEE, *Assistant to the Editor*

EXECUTIVE BOARD

HAROLD F. CLARK, *Chairman*
Columbia University
CONYERS READ, *Secretary*
Ex officio, Executive Secretary
American Historical Association
University of Pennsylvania
CHARLES A. BEARD
New Milford, Connecticut
RONALD BEASLEY
Groton School

ERLING M. HUNT
Columbia University
A. K. KING
University of North Carolina
JAMES A. MICHENER
Colorado State College of
Education
EDWIN H. REEDER
University of Illinois

RUTH WANGER
South Philadelphia
High School for Girls
EDGAR B. WESLEY
University of Minnesota
HOWARD E. WILSON
Harvard University
LOUIS WIRTH
University of Chicago

ADVISORY BOARD*

NELLE E. BOWMAN
Public Schools
Tulsa, Oklahoma
MARJORIE DOWLING BROWN
Manual Arts High School
Los Angeles, California
MARY E. CHRISTY
North High School
Denver, Colorado
HOWARD CUMMINGS
Public Schools
Clayton, Missouri
MERLE CURTI
Columbia University
STANLEY E. DIMOND
Public Schools
Detroit, Michigan
ELMER ELLIS
University of Missouri
RUSSELL FRASER
High School
East Orange, New Jersey
HARLEY S. GRASTON
Woodlawn High School
Birmingham, Alabama

WILLIAM A. HAMM
Public Schools
New York City
E. F. HARTFORD
DuPont Manual Training
High School
Louisville, Kentucky
HOWARD C. HILL
University of Chicago
EUGENE HILTON
Allendale School
Oakland, California
ERNEST HORN
State University of Iowa
GEORGE J. JONES
Public Schools
Washington, D. C.
TYLER KEPNER
Public Schools
Brookline, Mass.
ALLEN Y. KING
Public Schools
Cleveland, Ohio
D. C. KNOWLTON
New York University

MARTHA LAYMAN
State Teachers College
Valley City, North Dakota
MILES MALONE
Phillips Academy
Andover, Mass.
L. C. MARSHALL
American University
ELDON MASON
Marshall High School
Minneapolis, Minnesota
NORMAN C. PERRING
Lewis and Clark High School
Spokane, Washington
I. JAMES QUILLEN
Stanford University
MYRTLE ROBERTS
Woodrow Wilson High School
Dallas, Texas
ARTHUR M. SCHLESINGER
Harvard University
MABEL SNEDAKER
University Elementary School
University of Iowa

* One-third of the membership of the Advisory Board will be changed every year.

Published under the authority of the American Historical Association with the cooperation of the National Council for the Social Studies.

Subscription \$2.00 a year; single numbers thirty cents each. Address the American Book Company, Publication Department, 1009 Sloan Street, Crawfordsville, Indiana, or American Book Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York City, or the Editor.

Editorial Office: 204 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia

University, New York City. Correspondence in regard to manuscripts, reviews, and advertising should be addressed to the Editor.

Membership in the National Council for the Social Studies, including subscription to its Yearbook, bulletins, and SOCIAL EDUCATION, \$3.00 a year, of which \$2.00 is for a subscription to SOCIAL EDUCATION. Address W. F. Murra, Secretary, 18 Lawrence Hall, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Published monthly except June, July, August, and September at Sloan St., Crawfordsville, Indiana, by the American Book Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York, N. Y. Copyright, 1939, by the American Historical Association. Entered as second-class matter December 29, 1936, at the Post Office at Crawfordsville, Indiana, under the act of March 3rd, 1879.

Education
Forum

SOCIAL EDUCATION

CONTENTS

	PAGE
EDITOR'S PAGE	1
THE CONSTITUTION: AN INSTRUMENT FOR FREEDOM <i>Florence E. Allen</i>	6
A COURSE IN AMERICAN LIFE AND CULTURE . . <i>Margaret Steiner and Ethel King</i>	10
THE HISTORY CLUB AS TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP <i>Louis A. Schuker</i>	13
BOOKS ON EDUCATION, 1939 <i>Edgar W. Knight</i>	17
PLANNING FOR AMERICAN COMMUNITIES <i>Paul Oppermann</i>	28
EDUCATING FOR WORLD CITIZENSHIP <i>Russell T. McNutt</i>	33
A TEACHING UNIT ON ALASKA <i>Dorothy Farthing</i>	39
ATTITUDES AND IDEALS IN SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHING <i>John T. Greenan</i>	44
HAVE YOU READ? <i>Frances S. Brownlee</i>	51
NOTES AND NEWS	57
BOOK REVIEWS	64
PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED	75

SOCIAL EDUCATION is indexed in EDUCATION INDEX

SOCIAL EDUCATION does not accept responsibility for the views expressed in articles, reviews, and other contributions that appear in its pages. It provides opportunities for the publication of materials that may represent divergent ideas, judgments, and opinions.

Life in Many Countries

Our Little Neighbors at Work and Play—Here, There, Then and Now—*Carpenter*

With children as characters, this book tells of other ways of living and forms the background for a co-ordinated activity program in the social studies. (Grades 3 or 4) \$0.96

Come to France—*Gordon and Loftus*

An unforgettable trip made by two children through the north of France, Normandy, Brittany, etc., describing the country, people, life, etc. (Grades 3 to 5) \$0.72

Kee and Bah, Navajo Children—*Pack*

A true story of a little Navajo boy and girl of today in their native country, presenting a picture of their home life, occupations, etc. (Grades 3 to 5) \$0.72

Robin and Jean in the Netherlands and Belgium—*Williams*

Presents a background, both social and cultural, for the study of these countries; entertainment is mingled with information. (Grade 6) \$0.80

Judy's Ocean Voyage—*Bernstein*

A tale of how a little girl with her mother took a trip to Europe and what they saw and did while on shipboard. (Grade 3) \$0.68

Our Little Friends of Norway—*Carpenter*

Our Little Friends of China—*Carpenter*

The books of this series give a sympathetic understanding of the people of other countries by means of an imaginary visit which the reader pays to a little boy and girl in each strange land. (Grade 3) Each \$0.80

Jean and Jerry's Vacation—*Johnson*

Tells of the jolly times two children had one summer doing all the things that every boy and girl likes to do. (Grade 3) \$0.72

Si, Si, Rosita—*Russell*

Through this story, the pupil has a vivid picture of life in Mexico, especially the social customs of the children. (Grade 3) \$0.60

Harness and Pack—*Walden*

An entertaining story of the part animals have played in the life of civilized man showing the successive changes in our social progress. (Grade 5) \$0.72

Wi Sapa, Black Moon—The Story of a Sioux Indian Boy—*Hoffine*

A story of a real Indian boy in early Colonial days showing the customs, occupations, and amusements of the Sioux Indians. (Grade 3) \$0.72

Rambles in Europe—*Peattie*

A true story graphically written and quaintly illustrated depicting the enjoyable trip of a party of children through out-of-the-way places in Europe. (Grade 6) \$0.80

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

New York Cincinnati Chicago Boston Atlanta Dallas San Francisco

Editor's Page

AT THE END OF THE 1930's

HOWEVER few the issues that have been definitively settled, the 1930's can scarcely go down as a period of quiet or drifting in social studies teaching. The depression with its new demands on the schools and its sharpening of social problems, the recent threats to democracy, and the outbreak of a succession of wars have greatly modified the social needs to which the social studies in a democracy must necessarily respond. Developing educational theory and practice, themselves in part a response to new social needs, have necessarily made an impact on social studies, as on other, teaching. The Report of the Commission on the Social Studies and the growth in vigor and influence of both the National Council for the Social Studies and its affiliated organizations would in themselves have made the decade notable—as would, for that matter, the increased concern of educators in general for the whole area of social education.

THE DEPRESSION

THE continuing depression has already altered radically the task of the schools and the social studies within the schools. Urgent social problems, some new, some intensified, have had to be considered. Housing, labor, social security, agriculture, conservation of both natural and human resources, the relations of government and business—these are among the topics widely considered in courses in history, civics, economics, geography and modern problems, in current events, and in some programs

that have abandoned subject organization in favor of a curriculum based largely on immediate social and individual needs.

LARGER enrollments, traceable directly to the depression, have continued to widen the ability range in secondary school, bringing many "non-academics," to whom the traditional curriculum and traditional procedures are alike unsuited. The CCC program that has emerged should yield valuable experience in this aspect of social education, and vocational programs have been considerably expanded during the 1930's, but in the social studies we have as yet progressed little beyond recognizing the non-academics as a problem, and accepting the supplementary value of activities, community study, and visual instruction. We are not agreed about the desirability of homogeneous grouping, and the general education movement appears to be in conflict with part of the vocational movement. The problem of non-academics—and of gifted youth from whose needs non-academics have distracted our attention—is one of the major problems passed on to the 1940's.

THE Youth Problem, as the American Youth Commission has emphatically been making clear, goes beyond the CCC program and the needs of non-academics. Neither post-graduate attendance at high school nor the more satisfactory, if still restricted, solution of junior colleges has met or can meet the need. Opportunity for satisfying social outlets and for civic activity and

recognition are needs which the schools, or the social studies in the schools, can not meet alone, but which they can help to meet. The apparently growing conflict between the demands for economic security by the aged and for educational and economic opportunity for youth presents a related social and educational issue of the first magnitude.

As current interest in community study, vocational education, and consumer education imply, articulation must also be developed between education and both other social agencies and organized business. Already some guidance and social-service programs have been undertaken by the schools, often within or closely related to the social studies offerings, in an effort to lessen strains on youth.

DEMOCRACY AND WAR

THREATS to democracy from dictatorships, from wars, and from groups inside the country demoralized by the depression and perhaps by relief programs, have redirected attention to education for democratic citizenship. Subject matter, teaching methods, and administrative practices are all in process of review as renewed effort is made to develop a citizenry both informed about the problems with which it must deal and practiced in democratic procedures. There is increasing conviction that the schools can not be neutral in respect to the values of democracy, and that ways must be found of awakening youth to its responsibility in the democratic process.

EDUATION for democratic citizenship raises many controversial issues. Is it, for example, appropriate to bring up controversial issues in the schools? Are labor problems, the relations of government and industry, propaganda, consumer education, and sex education to be considered? Are we to indoctrinate for democracy? Is it democratic to differentiate school experience for different ability groups?

The issues raised by the war are, so far, largely the issues that relate to democracy. During most of the 1930's social studies teachers were much concerned with teaching for peace and international cooperation. Some have not given up hope that the present discouraging conflicts may yet advance these causes. As the decade closes, however, the immediate question appears to be whether such burning issues as American foreign policy and the actions of European powers are to be raised in classrooms, and again the answer is not yet clear.

CURRICULUM CHANGES

CONSTANT curriculum change has characterized the 1930's, as it did the preceding decade. The separate subjects and new combinations and integrations have alike stressed meanings, relationships, generalizations, and practical values. The grip of the colleges on the secondary program has been increasingly relaxed. Much educational theory and some educational practice have stressed information and specific skills less, and attitudes and effect on conduct more.

Extra-curricular activities have often ceased to be regarded as "extra"; physical activities and direct experience have, in some schools at least, been brought into balance with reading and vicarious experience. The classroom setting, class procedures, and sometimes the whole school atmosphere have been further humanized and made less formal. Orientation and adjustment have been major interests. Testing on a limited range of achievement has tended to give way to rounded evaluation, reflecting greater concern with all-around growth rather than narrower learning alone.

LEADERSHIP

ALL these changes have affected all education, but no part of it more than the social studies. As social issues have become urgent, and the social function of the school recognized and accepted, the social studies have moved inevitably into a more

and more conspicuous position. Leadership has come from many sources and directions. The Progressive Education Association, many departments and committees of the NEA, the Educational Policies Commission, the American Council on Education, several of the great foundations, and many individuals in education, government, and business have influenced thinking about social science and its place in education.

A COMPREHENSIVE survey of the whole area of social studies teaching was provided by the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. The sixteen volumes produced by a distinguished group of college and university professors and school administrators did not yield a specific program, but its interpretation of the social backgrounds of education and of the findings and interrelationships of the social sciences, its statement of goals for education and the social studies, and its review and evaluation of teaching procedures have unquestionably influenced the thinking of educators in general, and has either molded or provided respectable authority for much current practice in social studies teaching.

THE National Council for the Social Studies, in its meetings, its bulletins and yearbooks, and through *SOCIAL EDUCATION*, building in part on the work of the Commission, has taken increasing leadership. Its membership is, in spite of recent rapid growth, smaller than its potential membership and the importance of its work justify. It needs more workers, better cooperation from specialists both in the social sciences and in education, and greater resources, but the 1930's have put it in a position to exercise increasingly wide influence.

RESOURCES AND LIABILITIES

PROFESSIONAL standards have continued to rise as psychology, testing, guidance, and teaching procedures have continued to mature and, often, to become more technical. Yet, in spite of certification requirements in terms of degrees, total

points in education and subject matter, in practice teaching and various special aspects of education, the professional competence of teachers has not kept pace with demands.

Subject matter has spread more and more widely, whether in ever-broadening subjects or in correlated or integrated programs. History and the social sciences, literature and the arts, science and psychology—these are areas in which it seems increasingly to be expected that all teachers be proficient. Neither in preparatory or continuation courses can any real mastery of all this range be acquired. The conflict between generalized competence and specialized competence, both of which have values, is again one that the 1940's must face.

TEACHING materials made some gains in the '30's. Better textbooks, standardized tests, better maps, some teaching films, improved current-events publications—all of these increase our resources. Textbooks are too long, but parts can be neglected, and some single units are now being published. More pamphlets, with dependable data, are available.

Yet as we are being reminded, reading materials are inadequate to needs. New books for youth of limited reading ability can meet the needs in part, but visual materials and a direct experience program must also be expanded. If the increasingly heavy task assigned to the schools by changing society is to be discharged, additional staff and instructional resources are needed. Both are expensive, but failure in the task would be even more so.

THE needs of society, curriculum organization, and emphases in procedures will of course continue to change in the 1940's as they have in the past. Perhaps our best hope for the new decade lies in our better organization for aiding teachers to draw on the resources of scholarship and of professional educators as all try to respond to social needs that seem always to grow more urgent.

ERLING M. HUNT

DISCUSSION IN THE SCHOOLS

DURING recent weeks a surprising number of school superintendents have announced that any teachers detected discussing the war in their classrooms will be in danger of immediate dismissal. These statements are presumably the result of a laudable desire to keep the schools free of hysterical disturbances. Many citizens will sympathize with such a desire, but everyone deeply concerned with the perpetuation of democracy should censure the mistaken steps which have been taken to insure freedom from hysteria. At this time discussion of America's attitude toward the war should not be stifled by the schools. It should be encouraged.

American schools have been considered the very bulwark of American democracy. The testimony of great citizens from Thomas Jefferson to Charles Eliot bear testimony to this fact. The schools are at once the primary source and the refreshing spring from which the tenets of democracy obtain life. If free discussion of important problems is proscribed in the schools, a surrender of magnitude has been made.

THE problem may be analyzed in this way. If boys and girls of high school age are to be denied the right of discussing America's part in war, a first principle of democracy has been violated. Government must be founded on the consent of the governed. If war is agreed upon, students who are at present in school will be called upon to help share the burden. They must have a just part in making the decisions that will determine whether or not the country will move toward war.

If one reasons that children of high school age are too immature to share in the problems of democracy, fascism, and communism, he can be answered by the obvious fact that the two latter forms of government urge their youth to participate in all aspects of national life. Democracy must do the same, and the schools must assume leadership in enlisting young people for the cause

of sane government in this country. Secondary school students have amply demonstrated that they possess the mentality and judgment required for the study of national problems.

If it be argued that the question of war is too emotional for study by adolescents, two conclusive answers can be proposed. In the first place, this reasoning is of the "ostrich type." Young people are discussing the war at home. They discuss it wherever any groups gather. They think about it when they read newspapers, when they listen to the radio, and when they go to the moving pictures. Shutting the discussion out of the classroom does not remove an emotionalized problem from the attention of students. It merely drives the discussion into unsupervised centers. In the second place, it is perhaps better for young people to study emotionalized problems in the relative sanity of the classroom than to jump at snap conclusions without the benefit of any thoughtful discussion.

SOME educators have felt that treatment of the war should be excluded from the schools because teachers are not sufficiently informed or stable to teach honestly. If this is true, then American democracy is doomed by its own admission, and repressive measures will not preserve it. Teachers in our schools are representative, responsible citizens. On the whole, they are at least as well qualified by education and study to teach problems of war and peace as the average layman. It is rather obvious that if these favored citizens are not sufficiently intelligent and stable to lead discussions of national policy, there must be millions of voting citizens who are considerably less qualified. This means that there are really only a few supermen capable of making great decisions and that other citizens should delegate all responsibility to these favored few. Accepting such a belief is admitting the sterility of democracy and inviting a regime of dictatorship.

An unlikely explanation of the "gag

rule" may be that a few superintendents feel silence is the safest way to avoid trouble for the school. Acquiescence may be considered a wise administrative step. To such reasoning one can cite history for reply. When the administrators of the educational systems of Rome, medieval Europe, and modern Germany chose acquiescence instead of vitality, they administered the first blows that led to the disruption of their education. In a democracy schools are not built to provide an administrative chess-board on which silent figures are marshalled into interesting but dead patterns. The function of administration is to encourage and make possible the fulfillment of the school's principal obligations.

THROUGHOUT the country today there is probably no topic of more importance for the schools than the open, orderly discussion of America's part in the war. For many reasons this is so. Children of a democracy should be encouraged to participate in the formulation of national policy. If war does come, there will be a long suspension of democratic procedures, and our children need all the experience they can obtain today to fortify themselves against the day when as adults they will be faced with the task of helping to re-establish the ante-bellum democracy. Finally, tax payers have supported the schools for more than a century in the belief that among other things schools trained young people in the democratic way of life. Our schools will be a sorry implementation of that faith if they scuttle to cover at the first threat of difficulty.

If democracy is forced to jettison its primary principles, there is some question as to whether or not it will have sufficient strength to survive. If its basic tenets are to be killed at their roots in the school, it is probable that democracy is already defunct and that it is publishing its bankruptcy to the world.

JAMES A. MICHENER

Harvard University

BLASTING CONSUMER EDUCATION

TEACHERS who thought they had found a way to encourage the democratic way of life through consumer education received a shock when they read Stanley High's attack in the *Forum*, later widely publicized as the leading article in the October *Reader's Digest*. These teachers had foolishly imagined that if citizens were made less susceptible to the use of deceit in selling goods, it would strengthen the basis of our political and economic democracy. But, according to Mr High, they were badly mistaken, for these attempts are attacks upon our economic system and communistic in tendency if not actually dictated by what remains of the political party of Joseph Stalin. His analysis reminds American history students only too vividly of the opposition to the use of iron plows on the persistent charge that they poisoned the soil.

Probably the worst result of Mr High's demand that citizens be kept ignorant in order to make their exploitation easy is not that it creates suspicion of courageous teachers and furnishes another excuse to the timid and lazy for keeping in their rut of non-essential busy-work, bad as this is. Rather, it lies in the distressing evidence it supplies to prove the totalitarian argument that democracy is impossible, and education for it is a fraud. The familiar argument of this group is that as soon as any educational program shows signs of protecting citizens against a type of exploitation, the vested interest concerned sees to it that it is denounced as sacrilegious, and it is soon stopped by fear and pressure, if not outright prohibition. Mr High's article is discouragingly strong evidence for this position. Teachers expected eventual opposition from the vested interests most immediately affected by consumer education, but it is a little surprising to have Mr High take the lead in demanding that citizens be kept sufficiently gullible to trust the seller's testimony regarding his product. Or are teachers gullible in being surprised?

ELMER ELLIS

University of Missouri

The Constitution: an Instrument for Freedom

FLORENCE E. ALLEN

ALL of the great contests," declared David Jayne Hill, "which have marked the advance of civilization have been fought out on the battlefield of thought before they have been finally decided in the realm of action." It is to this battlefield of thought that the men and women of today are called.

THE first half of the nineteenth century wrought a great change in political institutions in all of the nations of Western Europe as well as in the United States. DeToqueville, noting this change, declared: "A new scheme of politics is indispensable to a new world; this, however, is what we think of least." Neither the American nor the English publicists constructed this new theory. Indeed the theory of constitutionalism as a departure from the old theory of sovereignty is yet to be formulated. We abolished the doctrine that the King could do no wrong and substituted a new doctrine, that the State should do no wrong; that the State should establish justice and promote the general welfare. But we did not define the scope of the doctrine nor establish it in the popular mind as faith.

This address on American liberties was delivered by Judge Allen of the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Cleveland, before the National Council for the Social Studies at its November meeting in Kansas City, Missouri.

Yet in all departments of life faith is the essential element. An artist slaves at his technique because he has faith in his ability to produce something beautiful. A poor man toils to pay for his home because he has faith that its possession will bring him security. There is no constructive action without faith behind it. If constitutionalism is to be a vital force in our government, we must believe in the ideals which constitutionalism embodies, otherwise the federal Constitution becomes a mere framework of government instead of an instrument for freedom.

Today, in the year 1939, more than a century and a half after the adoption of the federal Constitution, the political philosophy has not yet been constructed which enables that Constitution to be the living essence of our government. Politically, the American people are as a church which has a creed but no faith.

THE traditions which have made American life full, free, and generous are embodied in the Constitution. In our failure to articulate and formulate our constitutional faith we have stressed the Constitution as a framework of government. Its great value is that it is an instrument for freedom.

The preamble of the Constitution of the United States introduced a new principle into government. In addition to stating that the purpose of the new federation was "to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense," it added that its purpose was "to promote the general welfare."

This purpose was re-emphasized in the body of the instrument when the Congress was given power (Article I, Section 8) to lay taxes, pay the debts, and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States.

This had not been the aim of government in the centuries preceding the revolution. Since the establishment of centralized powerful states government had always been run for the benefit of the ruling classes. Sometimes the king was supreme, and sometimes the nobles; but the people were never supreme, and as a result the government was never run for the people. Ordinary functions of the state, exercised under what we call the police power, were farmed out for money or as a mark of favor to men who used their great positions to enrich themselves at the cost of the ordinary citizen. Offices were in effect for sale, and from the exercise of the functions of those offices the officers would exact all that the traffic would bear from those who were taxed or regulated.

OUR theory of government is that it shall be not government by the official and for the official, by the politicians and for the politicians, by the rich and for the rich, but by the people and for the people. We have really put to work the tradition that in this country government is to promote the general as opposed to the special welfare. It is a doctrine which we accept, that in our national life we share in a common enterprise to which we all contribute, the benefits of which are accessible to all. The tradition has been put to work with varying intelligence, directness and effect.

But looking at the country as a whole, a great cleavage is seen between our conception of government and the conception in force in the Old World. Behind the woof of our none too perfect social and political life runs a warp which is the basis of what James Truslow Adams calls the American dream of equal and generous opportunity.

Not forgetting the orgies of graft and corruption which have called forth the criticism of as fair an observer as Bryce, the fact remains that infinitely more money paid by the taxpayers has been expended in public enterprises accessible to all than has been wasted or stolen. Some of these enterprises in their immediate effects are physical. And yet the building of highways, the reservation of millions of acres of public parks and forests, the purification of water and milk, the elimination of typhoid, the care of the public health, all done by the public, have immense human values. The schools and libraries confer an immense intellectual and spiritual benefit. The systems are not perfect, but nowhere in the world are there so many books so constantly and freely circulated in public libraries, paid for by all and accessible to all. Nowhere in the world are there so many public institutions of higher learning accessible to all. In the Old World, until very recently, there was a sharp division between the school of the laborer and the school of the gentleman. It was a division made by society and made by the government.

It is an American tradition growing out of the conception that government is to be conducted for the general welfare that in this country we pool our reserves in the erection of such vast institutions for the common good. If this tradition, which we have carried out somewhat haphazardly, were to become an article of faith with the masses of the people, how mighty would be our progress.

IT is a tradition of our country that we violate no nation's honor, we attack no nation's freedom. This principle, too, was embodied in and made possible by the Constitution, when the war power was taken from the executive and confided to representatives of the people. As Mason said, the provision was enacted because the Congress was for clogging, rather than facilitating war, but for facilitating peace. Thus every question of war and peace becomes a

people's question, and means were provided that the foreign policy of the United States should be exercised in behalf of the common defense and the general welfare.

It was revolutionary doctrine that the war power should be exercised for the general welfare. It was the accepted theory that the war power should be exercised for the private purposes of the king. During the Revolution, England's battles were not only fought by men who had not the slightest interest in England's quarrels, but they were fought by men for whose services blood money was paid to their sovereign. The system of employing mercenaries is of ancient date, but the frightful injustice of that system was emphasized so relatively recently as in the American Revolution by the fact that some of the German princes rented out the men of their own country to fight and be killed in battles here in America. The Landgraf of Hesse received £108,000, approximately \$240,000, every year for the rent of Hessian soldiers. The elector of Cassel received enough blood money for the rent of the men of Cassel to erect the pile of buildings at Wilhelmshöhe. It took two thousand men, working twenty years, to complete that palace, and the indignation of the citizens of Cassel rose to such a pitch over the expense of the building that the accounts had to be falsified.

Most of these princelings received more for a dead man than for a wounded man. A common provision inserted in the contracts was that the prince should be paid sixty German thalers for a soldier who was killed in battle and sixty German thalers for three soldiers who were wounded in battle.

So entrenched was this system in the despotism of Europe that Benjamin Franklin wrote a scathing satire on the practice in the form of a letter purporting to be sent by one of these princes to his representative in London. The prince calls the attention of his representative to the fact that sixteen hundred of his soldiers were killed in the latest battle instead of thirteen hundred, as erroneously reported.

He comments upon the high expenses which his artistic projects have lately entailed, and states that, while he does not wish misfortune for his soldiers, neither does he wish them to hobble through life as cripples. He further admonishes his representative to see to it that Lord North corrects the account and pays him, not for thirteen hundred, but for sixteen hundred soldiers killed in battle.

These facts were burned into the consciousness of the men who fought the Revolution and framed the Constitution, and when we recount these facts today, we know that the Constitution has changed things for the better. Never, so long as the Constitution is in effect, will a President dare to send the men of our country to fight the quarrels of another country and receive cash for their blood.

THEN another great gain was made when our forefathers put the war power not into the hands of the executive, where it had always been, but into the hands of the representatives of the people. Even the Articles of Confederation provided that the exclusive power of determining war or peace should be in the hands of the states, and further hedged about that provision by stating that nine States must agree to institute war. When it came to the framing of the Constitution, most of the plans proposed carried on this idea to its logical conclusion, namely, that the war power should reside, not in the executive, but in the legislative body of the government. There was no dissension between the two divergent groups of opinion on this point. Alexander Hamilton, the conservative financial wizard, was in substantial agreement with those of the opposite party when it came to the placing of the war power. In his formal plan of the Constitution he drafted a provision providing that the power to declare war should reside exclusively in the Senate.

In the actual drafting of the Constitution, as the measure was debated, it was inserted that "The Congress shall have the power

to make war." This was changed to read "to declare war," and to the one suggestion that the war power should reside in the executive it was replied that the war power should reside in the legislative branch of the government, in order that war might be "clogged," and peace might be facilitated.

Because we did not understand this revolutionary doctrine and formulate faith in the democratic process as applied to international matters, we fostered intervention, and conducted in Central and South America what would have been wars if they had been so declared by Congress. Now this great tradition begins to be put to work, and in the Good Neighbor policy, with its fruition in the conferences at Montevideo, Buenos Aires, and Lima, we begin to see the realization of our early vision. If every American boy and girl could understand the purpose of the Constitution with reference to war, what a generous part we might play in helping to establish world peace.

IT is a tradition of our country that at the beginning rights of the individual were guaranteed not in a mere statement or attitude or intention, but in a Bill of Rights which was declared by the Constitution itself to be the supreme law of the land. The First Amendment to the Constitution should be learned by heart by every child in every school and family. It reads as follows: "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances."

NOT all of these provisions can be discussed here. They grew out of the actual needs of that day, needs which press upon us now. Not so long before this measure was enacted Bacon had said that if one said in private conversation that the king was incapable, this would constitute treason. Two generations later Algernon Sidney

was convicted and executed for writing, in a book which was never published, that the supreme power was lodged in the Parliament rather than in the King. "This book," said Chief Justice Jeffreys, in summing up to the jury, "contains all malice and revenge and treason that mankind can be guilty of. It fixed the sole power in the Parliament and in the people." Freedom to criticize the government was not the right of the ordinary citizen in Great Britain at the time our Constitution was adopted. It had been won for members of Parliament only. For the first time in history, and to a degree never before stated, freedom of inquiry was guaranteed through the Constitution to every resident within our borders. But this great tradition has not been put to work extensively. It has been enforced in ringing declarations in the Supreme Court, but in lower tribunals and in the hearts of the people, the First Amendment has not been properly enshrined. Never until police officers, mayors, legislatures, governors, and plain citizens understand and believe in the First Amendment as an article of faith, will it be actually, as well as in the words of the instrument, the supreme law of the land.

A FRENCHMAN recently said, "The Declaration of Independence is a certificate of birth not only for the whole American nation but for each American even today. . . . The Constitution has always had a sacred character for which there is no counterpart in any other country. It may be a wise political document, but it is also even more important as the most genuine and most truly mystical source from which every American derives the consciousness of being himself."

But liberty can not be written ready-made into a charter. It must be written into our hearts and sent on as a living force to the next generation. Here in America we have the great and living traditions, but only by writing them as articles of faith in the hearts of the people can these traditions function to the fullest.

A Course in American Life and Culture

MARGARET STEINER AND ETHEL KING

MOST teachers have probably dreamed of the opportunity of planning their ideal course and of being given both full materials and full freedom to conduct that course. In some such ideal situation a course in American Life and Culture was developed by an English and a history teacher to meet the requirements for both eleventh-year English and American history. The class was scheduled to meet for two hours each day.

OBJECTIVES, MATERIALS, ORGANIZATION

THE authors considered a critical attitude toward the meaning and reliability of facts to be more important than facts themselves, and believed that opinions of authors, teachers, and pupils should be examined as to validity and accuracy. Realizing also that no educational system, however well developed, could expect to create in a year or two a citizen capable of competently judging all economic, social, and political programs, we proposed to develop the ability to recognize an expert rather than to try to be one in all lines.

We recognized that the modern high school is not called upon to train technical historians. We recognized that an eleventh-year course should have an integrity of its

own rather than be a repetition of previous courses or a preparation for others to follow. We recognized the need for a narrative history with a social emphasis, and accepted the definition of social studies as "the vast body of literature dealing with human affairs." We also were aware of the possibility that the unconscious nostalgic yearning of many citizens for conditions of some earlier day in America might be as futile and disastrous as the attempt to expect adolescent psychology to solve adult problems. Finally, we realized that as a nation we are perhaps in danger of becoming incapable of appreciating cultural values.

OUR specific educational aims included the desire to present American literature as an interpretation of American life and ideals, to assist in the vocational adjustment of the pupils by encouraging the study of a chosen vocation against a background of industrial history, and to develop pride in the spiritual and mental strength which America may contribute to present world conditions.

The materials consisted of a variety of texts in American literature and history, current periodicals, and a wide variety of current fiction and vocational literature.

The year's work was organized on a flexible unit plan. Units were selected and planned so that some concept of chronological sequence was retained and each unit served as an introduction to the next. Pupil questions during the concluding discussions of one unit served as an approach to the next.

This account of cooperative teaching in a twelfth grade class comes from teachers of history and of English in the high school at Glendale, California.

THE SEVEN UNITS

UNIT I. ADJUSTMENT. The initial activities of the year centered around the problem of adjustment. The following skills were particularly emphasized: study methods, fundamentals in the mechanics of writing, elementary parliamentary procedure and organization, and the use of the library. A study of school laws, safety, propaganda awareness, and geography through the present world situation were included. The aim was to help the pupil to become aware of his own capacities and to know where improvements were necessary so that a basis for continuous development through the year could be established. Leo Huberman's *We, the People* was read primarily for pleasure during class time.

Unit II. Setting the Stage. The map study of the preceding unit prepared the way for the study of early explorations and colonization of the New World. Colonial life was presented as it influences life today. The contrast between colonial and modern family life and the position of the individual in relation to society opened the way for discussions of present day social problems. An account of the general character and important developments in the literary life was given in lecture form by the English teacher. With this background the selections for this period in *American Literature* by Russell Blankenship and *Adventures in American Literature* by Harry C. Schweikert were enjoyed by all members of the group.

Unit III. Pioneer. The transition from the preceding unit was easily accomplished since the colonial and pioneer adventurers sought the same goals and the last phases of colonial activity overlapped with the first advance westward. The unit offered a splendid opportunity for the study of community history and regional literature, group singing of American songs, and art work. The wealth of recent fiction portraying and evaluating this period stimulated the desire to read among many pupils who had not considered reading a leisure time activity.

Unit IV. Vocations. The change in living conditions and the problems caused by the receding frontier brought us to the study of vocations today. The approach, however, was made through the study of personality by self-analysis questionnaires, which in turn led to the study of selected vocations and acquaintance with local conditions. Pupils were encouraged to make a careful study of their qualifications rather than to build dream castles foredoomed to collapse in the realities of adult responsibility.

Unit V. Industrial Problems. The questions raised by pupils as they tried to visualize themselves in the present economic set-up introduced the historical study of industrial problems. No artificial stimulus was required for thoughtful reading of various estimates of contemporary economic difficulties. Careful attention to oral English became necessary and even attractive when pupils found that this made the presentation and defense of favorite theories in panel and class discussions more effective.

UNIT VI. Democracy, and
Unit VII. Individualism in Literature.

These two concluding areas of investigation were studied together, one hour a day being devoted to each. Emphasis on the new meaning of democracy showed the need for continuous study of changing conditions and developed an awareness of the failures and untried possibilities in modern democratic society. The preceding study of the social and economic adjustments made necessary by the growth of industry offered a wealth of material for discussion of democratic methods. The contrast between American and European conditions opened the way for the study of the historical background of democracy.

The unit on literature was planned to promote an appreciation of American culture and achievement and to show that American literature is an expression of American life. The American traits of self-reliance and individualism which had been discussed in the Pioneer and Industrial

units were made vivid in Ralph Waldo Emerson's essay, *Self-Reliance*, and Dorothy Canfield Fisher's essay, *The Vermonter*. Current essays by Stuart Chase, Lewis Mumford, and James Truslow Adams were also introduced.

THE PLAN IN ACTION

THE methods of presentation varied with the subject matter and study materials for each unit, as well as the maturing abilities of the pupils as the year progressed. The techniques included individual research in texts, lectures by the regular teachers and visitors from other departments, numerous panel discussions arranged and conducted by the pupils, directed study of the more difficult reading, and individual and group visits to industrial plants and museums. English skills were constantly developed by oral work as well as frequent composition and other writing, practice in outlining, and the reading of fiction and biography.

Each pupil was encouraged to make individual choices and progress at his own pace. Grading was based as much as possible on social attitudes, progressive development in self-direction, skill in group activity, study technic, and acquisition of factual information. Emphasis was placed on the need for efficient, dependable workmanship, and for cooperation, and on the value of individual responsibility.

THROUGHOUT the year the teachers endeavored to arouse a consciousness of contemporary problems in the pupils rather than to offer any solutions. Since class management was to a large extent placed in the hands of the pupils and everyone was granted freedom of speech, controversial issues were approached without fear or embarrassment. Nor was there any danger of leaving pupils with the impression that English and history were two unrelated studies.

A much wider variety of materials was secured by having most of the work done

in class, rotating one set of supplies among four classes. A wheeled book cart solved the problem of transfer. Most of the books were made available to pupils for home study by means of a library system operated by the pupils.

THOSE who are accustomed to the conventional course in American history and literature may, on the first consideration of the outline above, be shocked to see that a large number of topics usually considered essential to an adequate understanding of American history and literature have been omitted. Although political questions and accounts of wars seem to have been completely excluded in this outline such was not the case in actual practice. Numerous historical facts of political import were brought out in class discussion, but these facts were not considered ends in themselves. Nevertheless, we frankly admit that many "necessary facts" were rather joyfully excluded. Perhaps this was related to the fact that pupils expressed their satisfaction with our effort to provide a foundation for more intelligent participation in the future of America.

MATERIALS

- Adams, James T., and Vannest, Charles G. *The Record of America*. 5 copies.
 Blankenship, Russell. *American Literature*. New York: Scribners, 1937. 30 copies.
 Cunningham, William H. *Understanding America*. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1934. 5 copies.
 Faulkner, Harold U., and Kepner, Tyler. *America: Its History and People*. New York: Harper, 1937.
 Hilton, Eugene. *Problems and Values Today*. 2 vols. Boston: Little Brown, 1938. 2 copies.
 Hoffman, M. David, and Wanger, Ruth. *Leadership in a Changing World*. New York: Harper, 1935. 10 copies.
 Huberman, Leo. *"We, the People."* New York: Harper, 1932. 30 copies.
 Miles, Dudley H., and others. *Literature and Life*. Book III. Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1936. 5 copies.
 Rugg, Harold. *Introduction to Problems in American Culture*. Boston: Ginn, 1931. 10 copies.
 Wirth, Fremont P. *Development of America*. New York: American Book, 1936. 20 copies.
Commonwealth Guidance Pamphlets
 Frederick, Robert W. *How to Study Handbook*. New York: Appleton Century, 1938. 30 copies.
The American Observer
The Reader's Digest
The Scholastic (combined English and Social Studies edition)
Current History

The History Club in Citizenship Training

LOUIS A. SCHUKER

WE are all familiar with cartoons that have defended the democratic way of life by picturing youth in the authoritarian states carrying guns, obeying commands, or "heiling" their leaders, while in juxtaposition are shown free American boys happily engaged in sport activities. But is not this contrast incomplete? I would prefer that the cartoonist picture "playing citizen" as the opposite of "playing soldier." As a social studies teacher, I would be more pleased if he envisioned as the American answer to the military training of youth carried on under the fascist precepts of "credere, obbedire, combattere" a self-disciplined group of alert American youngsters seriously discussing a vital community problem.

THIS training in desirable citizenship activities can and should be fostered, of course, in the classroom. In my experience, however, the history club and similar extra-curricular activities provide a more dynamic and therefore an even more effective teaching situation. The club can break down the isolation of the classroom and foster

All of us have come to realize the importance of actually practicing as well as studying and talking about effective citizenship. This report of successful activity outside class comes from the chairman of the social studies department at New Dorp High School, Staten Island, New York.

the idea that the school is an integral part of the community. It can offer a realistic view of contemporary life. Conflicting forces outside the school can be brought before the membership through the medium of living advocates of various ideas rather than by textbook accounts. In addition, the club can provide functional training essential to group action in a democratic society. Here the students learn how to choose leaders wisely by actually selecting them after a full discussion of their fitness. The program committee acquires a sense of social responsibility through the necessity of arranging programs, getting speakers, advertising meetings, making sure of a sizable attendance, and making meetings successful. There is excellent opportunity for training in leadership—advocates of a cause must speak up, the president must introduce the speakers, he must be alert, he must be impartial, he must exercise scrupulous care about time during the questioning period, and he must know parliamentary procedure.

PRINCIPLES OF ORGANIZATION

THERE are several important principles which seem to be basic to the successful functioning of the history club. First, the motivation behind all activities must appear to be that of the pupils. All programs, all activities must spring from the pupils' desire to carry on serious group activities similar to those of their elders. The teacher in charge should always be enthusiastic without making the mistake of expressing this enthusiasm too openly. It is the youngsters' club. They must know and feel

it. In the club the faculty adviser should not impose his will or wisdom on the members. His guidance should never seem to limit the right of members to make their own decisions. This power of choice on the part of the students will make all their obligations and responsibilities seem self-imposed and will serve as the dynamo at the heart of the club's activities.

SECOND, club activities are not merely extra-curricular but co-curricular. The old concept of antithesis between classroom work and extra-curricular interests is false. The club can serve to motivate and enrich the work of the classroom. For example, representatives may be sent from history classes to witness and report back to class their reactions to an election symposium in which the various political parties are represented by official spokesmen. The propaganda committee may prepare a bulletin board illustrating propaganda devices. The peace committee of the club may issue a booklet to all history students, containing contributions of pupils on such questions as isolation, armaments, and collective security. The current events team may put on an assembly program. The club may also provide the recitation or application step in the learning process. Teachers who acted as judges for us in the Theodore Roosevelt Contest have attested to the fact that they had never seen better research work done on the high school level. A group of students who presented a scene from "If Booth Had Missed" acquired a real understanding of the issues involved in the impeachment of Johnson. A student whose task it is to trace the background of the Monroe Doctrine in the club's symposium on, say, the Lima Conference will not only read the suggested bibliography and listen avidly in class but will painstakingly organize his materials.

THIRD, a live organization must deal with live issues. A history club, of course, should not disdain to discuss such questions as the burial practices of the ancient Egyp-

tians or Court Life at the time of Louis XIV or Samuel J. Tilden and his times, but if it is to serve its main purpose it must deal with important controversial issues. Not only is the high school senior more interested in the aspirations, tensions, and conflicts of present-day society, but also it is through study of such problems that he can be taught to be critical minded, to see through evasive answers, to build up an immunity to demagoguery, to recognize anti-democratic propaganda, and to choose from among a host of competing propagandas those which are more socially desirable. The club can serve this function even better than the classroom because in the club an active and live propagandist holds forth, whereas in the classroom the teacher is supposed to approach every controversial issue with "a serene curiosity, a suspended judgment, and a pair of white gloves." John W. Studebaker made an additional point in this connection when he stated in *Plain Talk*: "The learner has an inalienable right to know all important points of view and to know these points of view as the people who hold them want to express them. Too frequently, the teacher thinks he has exhibited sufficient impartiality when he has explained ideas which he opposes, *as he sees them*. I want it established as the right of the learner to get opinions and ideas on controversial questions directly from those who believe in them." And the learner may not only get his ideas directly from an active propagandist but he will be present when the speaker is cross-examined by his fellow-club members.

FOURTH, the club in training for citizenship in a democracy must itself practice democracy. Membership in our club has been based entirely, with the exception of the formal requirement of a general organization card, upon the manifestation of interest by regular attendance. It is true that new members are elected to the organization by the membership, but this is only a formality since no student has ever been de-

barred. If educators such as John Dewey and Franklin Bobbitt are right in maintaining that the only way to prepare for desirable social life is by engaging in desirable social life, then the members must be given opportunities to draw up the rules of the club, make programs, invite the speakers, introduce guests, ask questions, criticize, and the like. They must be given opportunities to act in situations which require initiative, judgment, open-mindedness, fairness, and tolerance. If necessary, they must be permitted to muddle and waste their own time. In a history club of high school seniors it is better to have too much drifting than too much domineering. It follows too that there must be no repression of free speech. If materials are presented in the spirit of historical scholarship, and fair treatment is given to all sides, the faculty adviser should not interfere with any expression of opinion. As teachers we must trust that Jefferson was correct in maintaining that "error of opinion may be tolerated where reason is left free to combat it."

FINALLY, the club must teach the spirit as well as the practice of democracy, and that spirit must be caught rather than taught. Youngsters understand the meaning of free speech more vitally when they see and hear representatives of the Democratic, Republican, American Labor, Socialist, and Communist parties on the same platform at an election symposium. A demagogue who has been merely repeating slogans for thirty minutes must face a battery of critical questions for an equal length of time. Furthermore, the faculty adviser has the opportunity again and again by word, action, or attitude to transmit to the members an example of democratic action.

But what of those adolescents who are contrary minded, who may even have adopted what seems an undemocratic political philosophy? The club's purpose is educational, not disciplinary; its function is not to bludgeon youngsters into accepting what the faculty adviser thinks is a

right course of action. No discrimination of any kind should be practiced against those who have tentatively adopted any political philosophy. In fact, we should encourage our so-called radical youngsters to share in the responsibility of running the club, for if they have a feeling that they belong they will act considerately and circumspectly. There is no educational justification for causing any group of intelligent young people to look upon their faculty advisers and school administrators as oppressors or enemies.

PRACTICAL PROCEDURES

HAVING directed a history club in a large city high school for eight years with some degree of success, I offer the following suggestions to other faculty advisers:

1. Meet regularly in the same room on the same day at the same time, preferably every week. The size of the room will determine the size of the club. We meet in a large lecture room and find that even a membership of seventy-five is not unwieldy. Our attendance at meetings, including visitors, never falls below seventy. The secretary takes attendance by passing a sheet of paper around the room. A member is dropped from the rolls after three successive unexplained absences.

2. Although a certain amount of training in parliamentary procedure is desirable, both the constitution and club practices should avoid parliamentary technicalities. Our constitution is so simple that almost all the members are familiar with it. We hold elections at the last meeting of the term. Thus the old membership, including the graduating students, who are most familiar with the activities and qualities of the candidates choose the officers. We also elect an executive committee of five members to assist the president, the vice-president, and secretary. Each member of the executive committee is in charge of a specific task. For example, one is in charge of publicity, another is in charge of arranging a weekly talk on current events, and so on.

3. Publicity for the club can be secured in many ways. Announcements at the club meeting of the program for the following week, bulletins in the school paper and large posters with changeable fillers have all been used. Our chief means of advertising our meetings has been by sending type-written notices to each teacher of the social studies department on the morning of the meeting. All such work should be done by club members.

4. The adviser should meet with the club's program committee at the beginning of the term and see that a tentative plan is formulated for the whole term. He should make the committee feel that they are free to call on him for aid as, for example, in obtaining the right to use the mimeograph machine, or in procuring school supplies, or tracing the address of a proposed speaker.

5. It is very important that a judicious combination of stimulating speakers, both faculty and outside, be chosen for student symposia, forums, panels, reports, sight-seeing trips, and dramatic presentations. If at all possible, have varying viewpoints represented at the same meeting or consecutive meetings.

6. Membership and participation by students with diverse views should be encouraged. The adviser should sympathetically direct and reassure those youngsters who are sometimes brusquely treated by other club members. On the subject of tolerance and intellectual freedom the faculty adviser has great moral influence. A few well directed remarks at a spirited meeting can do much to keep give-and-take discussion on a high plane.

7. The history club should be a departmental or a school activity rather than a personal one. Teachers should be encouraged to speak to the club when they have contributions to make, asked to serve as judges in contests, and invited to take part in debates and symposia. Teachers, furthermore, will usually be glad to urge their pupils to attend club meetings since it is not difficult to correlate history club activ-

ities with some of the work in civics, economics, and the second terms of American and European history.

8. Our speakers have been faculty members, teachers from other schools, students, authors, representatives of every political party, editors of magazines, and representatives of patriotic societies and pressure groups. Speeches must not take more than half the meeting time. The other half, which is actually more important, should be devoted to a free, fair, and full discussion. (The length of our meeting is usually two periods—eighty minutes.)

9. To insure stimulating meetings, students must be prepared to ask pointed and basic questions of the speakers. The faculty adviser can try to achieve this by discussing the subject of the coming meeting with the more active members. The suggestion of an idea or pertinent book or magazine article to the right students will make the next meeting more spirited. In order to prepare properly for one widely advertised election symposium to which the major political parties sent official representatives, the club members held a symposium of their own the previous week.

10. Some social activity, such as a bus trip, a baseball game, a theatre party, or the like, should be planned every term. At our school, for instance, an annual baseball game between the history club and the history faculty has become a tradition.

○F course the social attitudes of our students will not necessarily be those which they have acquired in the classroom or in the club. One can not expect the school to be able to compete effectively with such powerful, dramatic, and sensational agencies as the press, radio, and motion pictures. Yet within the framework of the educational system we must not overlook a real opportunity for training our youth—at least our superior and more articulate youth—in such promising activities of democratic citizenship as are readily available to us.

Books on Education, 1939

EDGAR W. KNIGHT

IF the history of education reveals any one theme clearly it is that education reflects life about it. It seems also to reveal that the aims of education reflect the life aims of the dominant group in the society. The past year has witnessed the publication of much material that emphasized the high importance of democracy as a working way of life in the United States. How democracy can survive in a world that is torn asunder by violently conflicting governmental philosophies has been a popular theme of published materials this year. There was significance in the unique Congress on Education for Democracy, held at Teachers College, Columbia University, last August.¹

But of the making of many books on education there is still no end, and much effort to read some of them becomes "a weariness to the flesh," to adapt an assertion from one of the "wisdom books" of the Old Testament. The pedagogical wordage in defense of democracy and the role that democracy should play in the American schools has

¹ *Education for Democracy: Proceedings of the Congress on Education for Democracy.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939.

This review article continues an annual series. The 1937 review appeared in January, 1938; the 1938 review in November, 1938. Dr. Knight is professor of education in the University of North Carolina.

been heavy this year. If there is any virtue in voluminous books and articles on the subject, and if the recent trend in praise of democracy is able to maintain its upward curve, those who read these materials may finally find themselves inclining to endorse in practice as well as in theory the democratic way of life and of education in this country.

THIS charming form of government, as Plato calls democracy in his *Republic*, appears to have been threatened on a very colossal scale in the Western world in recent years, and American writers of books on and about education nowadays seem to be determined to do something about it. American schoolmen have been asking how the American educational arrangements may be made safe for democracy and how democracy may be made safe for the manifold and mysterious American educational arrangements—which are the most extensive and stupendous arrangements for education any people anywhere at any time in the long and toilsome journey of the human race has ever attempted to make. In this country ten billions are invested in educational properties—a sum second in size only to that of the national debt—and nearly three billions are annually spent on education. There are a million teachers, and every fourth man, woman, and child in the United States is reported to be in a school, of one kind or another.

Here, surely, are many fields, "white already unto harvest" for democracy. But it appears that while the harvest for democ-

racy is plenteous, the laborers for democracy in education have been and may still be few, if one may judge by the efforts—some of which now and then seem labored—of American schoolmen and professional writers of books on education to endorse democracy as the high wisdom of the founders of the American Republic and a safe and sensible way of American life.

THE amazing fact about some of this material on this charming subject of education and democracy or democracy and education—both fascinating words—is that we here in the United States seem just now to have discovered that in Russia the schools teach Communism, in Italy Fascism, in Germany Naziism, in Japan the dominant way of life among the Japanese. Apparently some leaders in American education have only recently found out that democracy, at least in theory, is presumed and assumed to be the way of life in the United States and that this way of life should be taught in the schools; that American children should at least be on speaking terms with or in “holering” distance of the so-called principles of American democracy and of American education.

Educating for Democracy,² planned and edited by I. L. Cohen and R. M. W. Travers, is made up of many chapters of many leaders in education who believe that the time has come for “a great step forward towards Democracy in the educational world.” They believe, as do so many people nowadays, that education must be made to serve democracy if democracy is to live.

In “Schools, The Challenge of Democracy to Education,”³ edited by Beulah Amidon, thirty-one specialists in education and journalism examine the schools of the United States in an effort to find out the purposes of American education, whether the schools are meeting the test in the American way, whether American school children are learning to think for themselves, and an-

swers to other persistent questions. This very stimulating number of *Survey Graphic* (October, 1939) is a successor to the “Calling America” number of that publication (February, 1939) which attracted wide attention and went through three editions.

S. R. Slavson's *Character Education in a Democracy*⁴ notes, as do so many people in these times, that American youth are confused, as are their mothers and fathers; and, at least by implication, the author recommends, in solution of this persistent problem, “integrative education.” And he seems to lean in the direction of democracy in education, which, it is now beginning to appear, the American people have not yet widely experienced.

SOCIAL BACKGROUNDS

DEMOCRACY AND THE CURRICULUM,⁵ a publication of the John Dewey Society, edited by Harold Rugg and with contributions by nine other American educators, surveys the political, social, and economic background of present educational problems, the school and the social order, the creative resources of America, culture and growth of the individual, and the life and program of the school.

*A Century of Social Thought*⁶ is a volume made up of lectures delivered at Duke University during the academic year 1938-39 in connection with its centennial celebration. It contains a chapter on education by Charles H. Judd, on economics by H. G. Moulton, on religion by Henry Sloane Coffin, on science and belief by John C. Merriam, on socio-cultural trends in Euro-American culture by P. A. Sorokin, on plan and performance by Robert Moses, and on “American Juristic Thinking in the Twentieth Century” by Roscoe Pound. The preface to this valuable volume is by Robert S. Rankin.

The Heritage of America,⁷ edited by

⁴ New York: Association Press.

⁵ New York: Appleton Century.

⁶ Durham, North Carolina: Duke Univ. Press.

⁷ Boston: Little Brown.

² London: Macmillan.

³ New York: Survey Associates.

Henry Steele Commager and Allan Nevins, composed of "source" material, contains a bit in the field of social history. The book moves all the way from the Journal of Columbus to the first inaugural speech of President Franklin D. Roosevelt.

American Social Problems,⁸ by Howard W. Odum, an introduction "to the study of the people and their dilemmas," has interesting implications for education in American democracy.

Public Education and Economic Trends,⁹ by T. L. Norton is an interesting and realistic discussion of the relation of economics to the problems of public education. It deals with such economic facts as population trends, machine technology, the mobility of labor, consumer wants, and employment opportunities, and points out the complexity of some of these conditions.

Two books, especially, of several in the Peoples Library series, that have general educational interest are Lyman Bryson's *Which Way America?*¹⁰ and Allan Seager's *They Worked for a Better World*.¹¹ These and other volumes in this series serve also to illustrate the value of James Harvey Robinson's argument fifteen or more years ago that knowledge should be humanized.¹²

PHILOSOPHY AND COMMENT

PRINCIPLES OF DEMOCRATIC EDUCATION,¹³ by William Bruce, discusses in non-technical language some of the fundamental problems that face students who enter upon teacher-training courses.

Social Education,¹⁴ edited by Grayson N. Kefauver, is made up of some important papers given in 1938 at the Stanford Education Conference, by authorities on various aspects of the task of promoting social edu-

cation. A discussion of progressive education, which is being talked and written about increasingly nowadays, appears in F. S. Reed's *Education and the New Realism*.¹⁵ I. L. Kandel's *Conflicting Theories of Education*,¹⁶ made up of a series of papers and addresses prepared in 1937 and 1938, seeks to interpret "education in the present social and political setting" and to give emphasis to the place of education in the preservation of the ideals and institutions of democracies. This is a very stimulating and useful book, by an authority in educational history and comparative education, and adds greatly to the recent wide discussions of education and democracy, of the school and society.

John S. Brubacher's *Modern Philosophies of Education*¹⁷ treats the function and the scope of educational philosophy, proposes a broad basis for the philosophy of education, and discusses education from the psychological, sociological, political, economic, and governmental points of view.

Creed of a Schoolmaster,¹⁸ by Claude M. Fuess, undertakes to answer such questions as what can private schools contribute to American life? Are the great English public schools better or worse than private schools in this country? What can the schoolmaster do for the bright boys? Here in nine chapters the headmaster of Phillips Andover Academy, founded in 1778, the influence of which has been felt throughout the United States, seeks to point the way which he thinks modern secondary education should follow.

A SMALL volume that is satirical of modern education and has made some people chuckle is *The Saber-Tooth Curriculum*,¹⁹ by J. Abner Peddiwell, as told by Raymond Wayne, with a foreword by Harold Benjamin—nothing like it has ever

⁸ New York: Holt.

⁹ Cambridge, Massachusetts: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

¹⁰ New York: Macmillan.

¹¹ New York: Macmillan.

¹² *The Humanizing of Knowledge*. New York: George H. Doran, 1923.

¹³ New York: Prentice Hall.

¹⁴ New York: Macmillan.

¹⁵ New York: Macmillan.

¹⁶ New York: Macmillan, 1938.

¹⁷ New York: McGraw Hill.

¹⁸ Boston: Little Brown.

¹⁹ New York: McGraw Hill.

so far appeared in the plethoric American pedagogical literature.

The new edition of *Talks of Teachers on Psychology*,²⁰ which the great psychologist, William James, gave in 1892 and published in 1899 carries an introduction by John Dewey and William H. Kilpatrick, who say of that educational classic that "James has given us in this book so much truth, expressed in such clear and vigorous language, that we who knew it when it first came out are not willing that it should stand unused on library shelves."

EDUCATION ABROAD

THE EDUCATIONAL YEARBOOK²¹ for 1938 of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, is the fifteenth of a series of yearbooks inaugurated by that Institute in 1924, and excellently edited by I. L. Kandel. The present volume, which maintains the high standard of the series, deals with problems of rural education and rural society in fourteen countries. These yearbooks are among the best sources of information on comparative education and they deserve wide use.

Problems of Modern Education,²² edited by E. D. Laborde, contains a collection of addresses delivered at the Young Public School Masters' Conference in England in 1938 and deals with various aspects of education, including organization, curriculum reform, physical education, and the value of broadcasting in schools.

Newman A. Wade's *Post-Primary Education in the Primary Schools of Scotland, 1872-1936*²³ seeks to point out the "outstanding educational traditions" that were solidly established in that country between the Reformation and 1872 and then to show the development of post-primary education under the primary school laws in that country between the latter date and 1936.

²⁰ New York: Holt.

²¹ New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

²² New York: Macmillan.

²³ London: Univ. of London Press.

The study is based on data gathered in a "first-hand" study of the schools of Scotland in the summers of 1932, 1935, and 1936. The volume shows that devotion to education is one of the most powerful traditions in education in Scotland. Highly useful for students of comparative education is the bibliography.

M. E. Cady's *The Education that Educates*²⁴ evaluates Hebrew education in comparison with ancient and modern educational systems and seeks to apply its principles and methods to the educational problems of the present. "Hebrew education," says the author, "has not been appreciated, but belittled and criticized . . . for it is out of harmony with the educational program of the day."

EDUCATION AT HOME

L. H. GULICK'S *Education for American Life*²⁵ is the general report that summarizes the findings and recommendations of the Regents' Inquiry into the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York, one of several very important volumes that grew out of the Inquiry and were reviewed in *Social Education* in September, 1939.

*A Survey of the Public Schools of St. Louis, Missouri*²⁶ by the Division of Field Studies of the Institute of Educational Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, contains a vast amount of information that should be useful for other city school systems.

Resources of Southern Libraries: A Survey of Facilities for Research,²⁷ edited by R. B. Downs, is of considerable significance to scholars in the South, where research barriers are high, as Wilson Gee so vividly showed several years ago in his *Research Barriers in the South*,²⁸ as well as to scholars elsewhere in this country.

²⁴ New York: Revell, 1937.

²⁵ New York: McGraw Hill, 1938.

²⁶ New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

²⁷ Chicago: American Library Association, 1938.

²⁸ New York: Appleton Century, 1932.

Business Education in the Changing South,²⁹ by Walter J. Matherly, is a picture of the background, development, status, and needs of business education in the Southern states. It emphasizes the needs and requirements of that section in the preparation of business leaders.

Graduate Instruction for Negroes in the United States,³⁰ by Fred McCuistion, is a very interesting study of a problem that has become very acute since the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the Missouri Case in December, 1938. In that decision it was held that a Negro citizen of that state must be admitted to the law school of the state university unless facilities equal to those in the University of Missouri were provided for him elsewhere in the state. This decision affected seventeen Southern states which, under their constitutions and laws, have long followed a policy of the separation of whites and Negroes in the schools. Dr McCuistion has examined the general problems of graduate work for Negroes in this country and pointed out the need for such instruction. The volume contains valuable information on the subject.

EDUCATIONAL BIOGRAPHY

ELIHU YALE,³¹ by Hiram Bingham, is a useful biography of the man for whom Yale University is named. "The College, to which he was induced to make a contribution, and which he intended to befriend in his will, is still flourishing." The gift secured for him "a commemoration and perpetuation" of his name "much better than an Egyptian pyramid," as Cotton Mather prophesied.

James Dow McCallum's *Eleazar Wheelock*³² is a biography of the founder of Dartmouth College, who took young men, among them Samson Occum, an Indian,

into his house to prepare them for college. Samson made such creditable progress that Wheelock established a school, in which Indians as well as white youths were taught, and out of the project grew Dartmouth. The distinguished years of Andrew D. White, as the first president of Cornell University, are described in *Selected Chapters from the Autobiography of Andrew D. White*.³³

The Spirit of Horace Mann Carries On,³⁴ by Ernest H. Koch, Jr, is something of a biographic story in which is stressed the need for cooperation among all peoples for tolerance and moderation, so that American ideals may be maintained and progress promoted.

*Friedrich Paulsen*³⁵ is the first English translation (by Theodor Lorenz, with a foreword by Nicholas Murray Butler) of the autobiography of the eminent late nineteenth-century German liberal scholar and educational historian, who did not hesitate to oppose some of Kaiser William II's views on German education and on academic freedom. This forthright record reveals Paulsen as a man unafraid of his mind.

What a University President Has Learned,³⁶ by A. Lawrence Lowell, who served as president of Harvard University from 1909 to 1933, contains discussions of the problems of a higher educational administrator, academic freedom, and other subjects and a comparison of American colleges and universities with higher educational institutions in Europe.

ACROSS THE BUSY YEARS,³⁷ by Nicholas Murray Butler, is full of colorful "recollections and reflections" on education and politics by a man who has been connected with one of the great universities of the world for sixty years as student, teacher, and, for thirty-seven years, president. One of the heartening statements in the book is the assertion that this eminent

²⁹ Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press.

³⁰ Nashville, Tennessee: George Peabody College for Teachers.

³¹ New York: Dodd Mead.

³² Hanover, New Hampshire: Dartmouth College Publications.

³³ Ithaca, New York: Cornell Univ. Press.

³⁴ Boston: Meador.

³⁵ New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1938.

³⁶ New York: Macmillan, 1938.

³⁷ New York: Scribner's.

American seems grateful that he received "a good old-fashioned education," which he has long urged, in his reports, addresses, and other writings, as essential to American life. Long also has the importance of good teaching been emphasized by President Butler, who, in one of his reports some years ago, defined educational administration "as the doing extremely well of something that had better not be done at all." His reports, the most distinguished in American educational history, seem inoffensively but pointedly to show that administration, rather than teaching, has become the tail that now wags the American educational dog.

A Goodly Fellowship,³⁸ by Mary Ellen Chase, is also autobiographic and tells of her work in a rural school and then as teacher of English in a state university (Minnesota) and in an independent college (Smith). *A Teacher and His Times*,³⁹ by William Adams Brown, is an autobiography of a man who has been active in educational and theological work for nearly half a century. The book throws interesting light on many important events during that time.

Five North Carolina Negro Educators,⁴⁰ prepared under the direction of N. C. Newbold, contains sketches of the lives and work of Simon Green Atkins, James Benson Dudley, Annie Wealthy Holland, Peter Weddick Moore, and Ezekial Ezra Smith, all leaders chiefly in higher education in North Carolina during the past half century. The sketches were cooperatively prepared under the direction of a sponsoring committee.

HISTORY OF EDUCATION

THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY,⁴¹ by Adolph E. Meyer, is confined to the past forty years, and discusses such

recent developments as progressive education, modernizing educational theory, the education of exceptional children, adult education, and gives considerable space to school systems in England, France, Germany, Italy, and Russia.

Stuart G. Noble's *A History of American Education*⁴² differs in a highly creditable manner from most of the books on this subject. It contains much fresh and lively material and is intelligently interpretative of the forces that have produced the so-called American system of education.

Willard S. Elsbree's *The American Teacher*⁴³ combines a valuable historical account of the subject—the colonial schoolmaster and the public school teacher during the early years of the Republic—with a good discussion of "the emergence of the professional teacher." The book, excellently done, shows how much this important part of American educational history has been neglected.

The College Professor in America,⁴⁴ by Claude C. Bowman, is an analysis of 375 articles (one-third by professors themselves) published in nineteen "general" American magazines during the period from 1890 to 1938. The study attempts to describe by quotations and analyses of articles, professorial personality, salaries, academic life, academic freedom, teaching and research, and role in public affairs.

The Puritan Pronaos,⁴⁵ by Samuel Eliot Morison, consists of studies in the intellectual life of New England in the seventeenth century. There are chapters on the beginnings of higher education, on the elementary schools, with a discussion of the act of 1647, and the public grammar schools. In the book also may be found discussions of printing, book selling, libraries, and historical and political literature.

Andrew D. Holt's *The Struggle for a State System of Public Schools in Ten-*

³⁸ New York: Macmillan.

³⁹ New York: Scribner's.

⁴⁰ Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press.

⁴¹ New York: Prentice Hall.

⁴² New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1938.

⁴³ New York: American Book.

⁴⁴ Philadelphia: Univ. of Pennsylvania Press, 1938.

⁴⁵ New York: New York Univ. Press, 1936.

nessee⁴⁶ is a history of education in that state from 1903, when effective campaigns for public education were begun there, to 1936. There are discussions of the forces that retarded and those that promoted educational growth, the status of the schools at the beginning of the century, the "campaign era," the schools in politics, and other interesting topics.

Educational Foundations of the Jesuits in Sixteenth-Century New Spain,⁴⁷ by Jerome V. Jacobsen, S.J., reveals the high standards for education which the Jesuits early held and have continued to hold. New Spain in the sixteenth century was a rich field for proving the Jesuit principles, for their influence on both the individual and the community about the school. This is a useful contribution to the history of the Society of Jesus. *The Jesuit Code of Liberal Education: Development and Scope of the Ratio Studiorum*,⁴⁸ by A. P. Farrell, S.J., is an extensive and scholarly history of the materials and methods of Jesuit education during the four centuries of its existence. The story of Ignatius Loyola, founder of the great teaching and missionary order, The Society of Jesus, is given in Ludwig Marcuse's *Soldier of the Church*,⁴⁹ in which is told the story of the first Jesuits.

A NEW interpretation of the philosophy of the man who wrote the first and perhaps greatest treatise on education appears in *The Philosophy of Plato*,⁵⁰ by Raphael Demos, which differs somewhat from earlier critiques and commentaries.

Important publications by the Advisory Committee on Education⁵¹ during the year, some of which contain useful historical material, included *The Land-Grant Colleges* by George A. Works and Barton Morgan, *Special Problems of Negro Education* by

D. A. Wilkerson, *Research in the United States Office of Education* by Charles H. Judd, *Educational Service for Indians* by L. E. Blauch, *Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration* by D. S. Campbell, F. H. Bair, and O. L. Harvey, *Principles and Methods of Distributing Federal Aid for Education* by P. R. Mort, E. S. Lawyer, and associates, *Public Education in the Territories and Outlying Possessions* by L. E. Blauch and C. F. Reed, *Education of Children on Federal Reservations* by L. E. Blauch and W. L. Iversen, *Federal Aid and the Tax Problem* by Clarence Heer.

Federal Activities in Education,⁵² another important publication of the Educational Policies Commission, prepared under the direction of Lloyd E. Blauch, briefly traces federal relations to education since 1789 and then describes the numerous educational activities in which the national government has come in recent time to engage. The volume is full of valuable information.

HIGHER EDUCATION

THE COLLEGE CHARTS ITS COURSE,⁵³ by R. Freeman Butts presents a very valuable interpretation of the historical views which have influenced higher education in this country and controversies which have divided and some which still divide higher educational theorists. Here may be found the views of great leaders in the past—Wayland of Brown, Tappan of Michigan, Eliot of Harvard, White of Cornell, Barnard of Columbia, Gilman of Hopkins, Jordan of Stanford, Harper of Chicago—as well as representatives of recent controversies in the field of higher education.

What College Presidents Say,⁵⁴ by Edgar W. Knight, is a study of the ideals and policies of higher education in the United States as these are revealed in inaugural addresses, reports, and occasional speeches and articles of college and university presidents. The

⁴⁶ New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

⁴⁷ Berkeley: Univ. of California Press, 1938.

⁴⁸ Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing, 1938.

⁴⁹ New York: Simon and Shuster.

⁵⁰ New York: Scribner's.

⁵¹ Washington: Government Printing Office.

⁵² Washington: National Education Association.

⁵³ New York: McGraw Hill.

⁵⁴ Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina Press.

book contains more than 600 quotations from more than 200 presidents of more than 100 higher educational institutions in most of the American states. The material deals with what the presidents say about the college presidency, the purposes and the weaknesses of higher education, its organization and administration, faculty and student relations and their views on the obligation of higher education to the social order.

The Future of the Liberal College,⁵⁵ by Norman Foerster, considers especially the small American college in relation to the dominant conception of American life—"materialistic and humanitarian"—and the John Dewey philosophy of education. The author is pessimistic about the future of the liberal arts college, which he thinks "is threatened with extinction." The book should be examined in connection with Foerster's volume, *The American State University*,⁵⁶ noted in the review article in this magazine for January, 1938.

ON GOING TO COLLEGE⁵⁷ is a symposium by thirteen specialists who seek to give advice in their respective fields to students who are beginning their college careers and who are confused by the variety of collegiate subjects—but there is not a word on what to eat, how to study or to sleep, or how to become a campus leader. It does try to offer "some liberal intellectual perspective for the four years of undergraduate life."

*Youth and Culture*⁵⁸ is an excellent volume of addresses by the late William Louis Poteat, who served as president of Wake Forest College in North Carolina, from 1908 to 1927. For a quarter of a century before he began that service and for a decade after he retired from the presidency, until his death in 1938, at the age of eighty-three, he was professor of biology in that institu-

tion, his alma mater. With one exception (his inaugural), the addresses were made to young men just completing their college careers. Wiser advice was probably never given college men in this country. The word "culture" appears in the titles of all except one of the papers.

Studies in Early Graduate Education,⁵⁹ by W. Carson Ryan, with a preface by Walter A. Jessup, Bulletin Number Thirty, another important publication of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, shows that graduate instruction has become a "big business" of education in the United States, although growth in this field is comparatively recent. Today more than 80,000 men and women are enrolled in courses leading to higher degrees, which annually add up to about 25,000 master's and 3,000 doctorates. It should not be disturbing to holders of some of these degrees to learn that both master's and doctor's degrees were honorary in this country for a long time—as some of both degrees still are. The "pioneering efforts" of the Johns Hopkins University, Clark University, and the University of Chicago, in what has become a vast field of the higher learning of this country, are here reported in highly scholarly manner.

The History of Goucher College,⁶⁰ by Anna Heubeck Knipp and Thaddeus P. Thomas, traces the history of that institution from its beginning as Woman's College of Baltimore. One of the authors of the volume, Anna Heubeck Knipp, entered the institution as a freshman in its beginning and has been closely associated with it ever since. The other author had opportunity to observe the growth of the college, since he joined the faculty in 1892 and was there until he retired in 1934. The book discusses the activities of the institution from the administration of President William H. Hopkins down into the administration of President David A. Robertson. There are useful chapters on the growth of the curriculum

⁵⁵ New York: Appleton Century, 1938.

⁵⁶ Chapel Hill: Univ. of North Carolina, 1937.

⁵⁷ New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1938.

⁵⁸ Wake Forest, North Carolina: Wake Forest College Press, 1938.

⁵⁹ New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

⁶⁰ Baltimore: Goucher College, 1938.

and on student life through the years.

The Building of Drew University,⁶¹ by Charles F. Sitterly, is an interesting volume on this denominational higher educational institution. David A. Lockmiller's *History of the North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering of the University of North Carolina, 1889-1939*,⁶² appearing as the "official semi-centennial history" of that institution, fails to compare favorably with many of the numerous histories of higher educational institutions of this country.

ADMINISTRATION

SCHOOLS AND CITY GOVERNMENT,⁶³ by Nelson B. Henry and Jerome G. Kerwin, doubtless found, as soon as it was published, a place on the required reading lists for prospective school administrators in university schools of education—where educational mechanics if not educational statesmen are annually turned out in mass. The book shows, or seems, indeed, to show, that superintendents of schools in the various American states are tolerant of the students, their parents, and even the school board members, but are not always devoted to the mayors of their towns and cities. The authors of the book studied school arrangements in nearly two hundred cities, and their ways of doing so-called educational things. The upshot of the book is the obvious fact that schools are not free of politics, used in its ugliest form; that the slogan "keep politics out of the schools" is empty, meaningless—a condition that does not make for democracy in American education or real education in American democracy.

The Daily Schedule and High School Organization,⁶⁴ by R. E. Langfitt, throws helpful light on this problem which pesters so many high school administrators—with useful bibliographies on the subject.

⁶¹ New York: Methodist Book Concern, 1938.

⁶² Raleigh, North Carolina: Edwards and Broughton.

⁶³ Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1938.

⁶⁴ New York: Macmillan, 1938.

PSYCHOLOGY AND MEASUREMENT

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY,⁶⁵ by Charles H. Judd, emphasizes, among other things, the influence of psychology on education since Wilhelm Wundt in Germany and William James in the United States began their distinguished work in this field. The book is organized around the big subjects of physical heredity and behavior, social heredity, personality, and psychological solutions of problems in the field of education. There is specific discussion of the language arts, foreign languages, the arts of calculation, vocational education and general education, the fine arts, the natural sciences and the social sciences, and the bearing of psychology on these fields.

Statistics Applied to Education and Psychology,⁶⁶ by C. T. Gray and D. F. Votaw, is intended for classroom teachers, school principals, and educational research workers, as well as for students of psychology and education. The book contains tables to facilitate calculations and a brief bibliography.

Practical Measurements for School Administrators,⁶⁷ by M. C. S. Noble, Jr, describes intelligence tests and achievement tests as well as other types of measurements that may be used in the field of education, with emphasis upon the administrative rather than research methods.

HEALTH

EDUCATING FOR HEALTH,⁶⁸ by Frank E. Hill, is a very useful volume in a "series of studies in the social significance of adult education in the United States," being issued by the American Association for Adult Education. *Mental Hygiene*,⁶⁹ by William H. Mikesell, which deals with "practical normal mental health for the average man," says that "psychology has lost

⁶⁵ Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

⁶⁶ New York: Ronald Press.

⁶⁷ Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company.

⁶⁸ New York: American Association for Adult Education.

⁶⁹ New York: Prentice Hall.

its academic aloofness," and that psychologists are not ashamed nowadays "to hand out a few ideas that people can use to make the day a little more successful."

METHODS AND ORGANIZATION

CREATIVE TEACHING,⁷⁰ by F. T. Struck, has been prepared to aid prospective teachers, those in service, and students of industrial arts and vocational industrial education. It urges that learning can be made "a life-long joyous creative experience. . . ."

The Education of Youth for Leadership,⁷¹ by Arthur J. Jones, is a useful book designed to assist teachers and administrative officers in secondary schools in developing leaders.

Frank A. Butler's *The Improvement of Teaching in Secondary Schools*⁷² discusses the persistent problem in the professional education of school teachers—how to improve their work in the classroom.

Directed Learning,⁷³ by R. W. Frederick, C. E. Ragsdale, and Rachael Salisbury, gives emphasis to the importance of supervised study in all kinds of school work, and should be very helpful to high school principals, supervisors, and teachers. So also should Hanna Logasa's *The Study Hall in Junior and Senior High Schools*,⁷⁴ which contains specific and practical suggestions for improving practices in study halls.

How to Study Effectively,⁷⁵ by Frank W. Parr, is intended as a guide for those students who are just entering college. The manual aims to give helpful suggestions on practical problems.

Studying Efficiently,⁷⁶ by S. L. Crawley, which has gone through several printings since its first appearance in 1936, is intended to orient college students to the jobs for which they are supposed to go to college—to learn how to study and to learn some-

thing through learning how to study, jobs which so few of them ever learn to do well. But there is no harm, even if much energy is spent in the effort, in trying to tell them again how to do these jobs well.

INTEREST both of the colleges and the secondary schools in reading abilities of the students continues lively. Interest in remedial and corrective reading may be seen in Eva Bond's *Reading and Ninth Grade Achievement*.⁷⁷

Mabel Vinson Cage's *Reading in High Gear*⁷⁸ seeks to combine instruction in reading practices and motivation in reading interests, and seems to show that few high school pupils attain their maximum reading abilities.

An Evaluation of Visual Factors in Reading,⁷⁹ by H. A. Imus, J. W. M. Rothney, and R. M. Bear, is an important preliminary report of an investigation begun by Dartmouth College in 1936 in an effort to improve the reading abilities of its students, especially its entering classes. It shows that too few students are free from ocular defects and that so-called collegiate medical services give insufficient attention to the ocular conditions of college students.

How to Counsel Students,⁸⁰ by E. G. Williamson, a "manual of techniques for clinical counsellors," discusses personality problems, problems of educational orientation and achievement, problems of occupational orientation and financial and health problems. Needed investigations in these fields are also set out in this useful book.

The Dean of Boys in High School,⁸¹ by Joseph Roemer and Oliver Hoover, discusses the qualifications and functions of this official, who is increasingly finding his way into the large secondary schools. *Vocational Guidance in Catholic Secondary*

⁷⁰ New York: John Wiley, 1938.

⁷¹ New York: McGraw Hill, 1938.

⁷² Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press.

⁷³ New York: Appleton Century, 1938.

⁷⁴ New York: Macmillan, 1938.

⁷⁵ New York: Prentice Hall, 1938.

⁷⁶ New York: Prentice Hall, 1938.

⁷⁷ New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

⁷⁸ New York: Harper, 1938.

⁷⁹ Hanover, New Hampshire: Dartmouth College Publications, 1938.

⁸⁰ New York: McGraw Hill.

⁸¹ New York: American Book.

Schools: A Study of Development and Present Status,⁸² by Sister M. Teresa Gertrude Murray traces the development of such guidance in Catholic secondary schools through reports of discussions in the annual meetings of the National Catholic Educational Association and in local educational conferences, and seeks to determine from material collected in a questionnaire the present status of such guidance.

When Home and Schools Get Together,⁸³ by Tracy W. Redding, presents the view that the character of children depends upon what their parents and their teachers do to and with them. The author urges a closer understanding between the school and the home.

A. C. Krey's *A Regional Program for the Social Studies*⁸⁴ emphasizes what to teach in the social studies and how to organize the rich materials in that field.

FELLOWS OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL, 1925-1939⁸⁵ tells the story of the series of fellowships which the Social Science Research Council has administered since its incorporation in 1924. It gives a brief history of each series of awards, their objectives, the academic training of the 506 fellows, with analyses

⁸² New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937.

⁸³ New York: Association Press, 1938.

⁸⁴ New York: Macmillan, 1938. Reviewed in *Social Education*, November, 1938.

⁸⁵ New York: Social Science Research Council.

of the programs which they pursued. The introduction to the volume is by Carl C. Brigham.

PRINTING is among the most powerful instruments ever placed in the hands of man in his struggle for freedom. In the booklet, *The Story of the Recorded Word*,⁸⁶ appears a fascinating account of "printing" from the time man made his "first impressions on clay to the modern newspaper." In it may be found the history of the "recorded word" through its "three major periods"; when man first learned to write, when he learned to print, and when he applied "power and new inventions" to the task of "speeding up" the greatest of all the arts of the human race. It is a little book but, as Daniel Webster said, in 1819, to Chief Justice John Marshall and his associates on the Supreme Court, when fate of little Dartmouth College was hanging in the balance, "there are those who love it."

Seventy Years of Textbook Publishing,⁸⁷ by Thomas B. Lawler, is a very useful history of a great publishing house, Ginn and Company, from its beginning in 1867 to 1937. The theme of the book may be found in a quotation from Richard De Bury's *Philobiblon* (1345) that "all the glory of the world would be buried in oblivion, if God had not provided mortals with the remedy of books."

⁸⁶ New York: New York Times Company.

⁸⁷ Boston: Ginn, 1938.

Planning for American Communities

PAUL OPPERMAN

CITY planning, professional planners as well as historians claim, is one of the most ancient of sciences. The cities of the earliest civilizations were to a considerable extent planned cities albeit the planning of even the largest of them, say the Capital of the old Roman Empire, was a simple and elementary task compared to the metropolitan planning of today. Even the planning problems of a medieval city of only a few centuries ago present a striking contrast to those of cities of a size we consider very modest today, for example, those in the fifty thousand population classification.

The early city was almost an island economically, and to a considerable extent socially or culturally too. Practically everything was produced locally, from the foodstuffs, which came from nearby field and forest, to the house and its furnishings, wrought by townsmen from local materials. The standard of living, so called, was admittedly low by today's standards, and a type of planning was called for which admitted small margin of error in calculation—it was a matter of life and death if supplies

were not adequate when the city gates had to be closed for an indefinite period and a state of siege was declared.

The walled city is now as much a thing of the past as the city which lives "unto itself alone." The source of the energy which lights the streets of the city and the homes of citizens, which turns the wheels in factory and shop, may be hundreds of miles distant. The family car, chances are, came off the assembly line of a Detroit motor plant, whether the owner resides in Ashtabula, Ohio, or Nome, Alaska. The telephone in almost every American home is linked to one hundred and fifty million other instruments in the United States alone. If the head of the house so wishes he can be entertained from a distant continent, by short wave, almost any evening. The street running past his house leads into main highways, state and federal, which cover our own territory and connect with other areas of the North American continent. Literally, the local community is part and parcel of the national and international communities.

Now that we have come to take for granted, and are, to a greater extent than we may be aware, dependent upon the rubber trees of the Dutch East Indies, oranges from another kind of tree in Florida and California, and upon tin, nickel, and tungsten from far distant parts of the world, the arguments for peace and continued exchange, not only of products, but of scientific and cultural advance, are readily grasped and given a high value. There is a type of planning suited for this level of human affairs too. It is needless to point

Courses in civics, economics, and modern problems are giving increasing attention to problems of planning. This account of the development and present status of community planning is contributed by the assistant director of the American Society of Planning Officials.

out, however, in view of the social and economic dislocations which followed the World War and of the disaster which overtook us in 1929, that international planning is still a long way in the future.

NATIONAL PLANNING

WE have made a real beginning in planning at the national level, however, which should stand us in good stead in the difficult years ahead. A brief review of what has been done toward planning for the nation is apposite as background for discussion of local planning.

In 1933 a National Planning Board was established for the first time, by executive order of the President, to act in an advisory capacity, and to assist communities in the making of programs of needed and useful projects. When the Congress appropriated funds for the emergency relief and unemployment programs at the beginning of the Roosevelt administration, our cities were found to have no long-term schedules of public works upon which men and funds could be immediately and profitably employed. The National Planning Board was established in that juncture, and demonstrated its usefulness in 1933 and 1934 and subsequently. Continuing as a temporary agency it provided assistance not only to the executive branch of the government and to agencies of the federal government but also gave technical aid to the state planning boards which were established during the depression years in nearly every state. These boards were appointed by governors or established by statute to perform functions in the state governments roughly similar to those of the planning boards in other governmental levels. The national planning agency and many of the state planning boards have conducted studies of land use, population, and drainage basin problems.

The national board in particular has cooperated with such federal bureaus as the Department of Agriculture's Forest Service, Soil Conservation Service, and Bureau of Public Roads; with the Department of the

Interior, the Public Works, and housing agencies. National problems have been outlined and analyzed, and findings made available to federal, state, and local officials, as well as to the public. Information basic to planning of private as well as public programs—knowledge long overdue of deep-seated ills in the body politic—has been collected and published, but there remains to be done much further survey and inventory work. Those engaged in the social sciences, however, whether teachers or researchers or both, will gain an insight into the extent of the program of research and survey for planning, and for many other purposes, by examining the two-volume *Index of Research Projects*, published by the Works Progress Administration. In doing so one can not escape at least two major conclusions: (1) that here at long last are many of the materials for the broad framework of a national plan, into which the plans of the forty-eight states and of their urban and rural areas may be fitted; and (2) in these surveys of land use, traffic, housing, taxation, crime, delinquency, and disease, etc., a readily comprehended overall picture is presented of conditions in cities and towns and in farming sections. With comprehensive knowledge of our problems, what they are and where they are most pressing, appropriate plans and action programs can be designed and effectuated.

SCIENTIFIC CITY PLANNING

CITY planning, after a long hiatus, is once again becoming a science. Only a generation ago there was a mere handful of municipal governments which would have recognized the term and understood its meaning. In 1901 a new plan, or rather a modernized version of the original L'Enfant plan of Washington, was made for the nation's capital. The first city plan on a large scale, executed along contemporary lines, was David Burnham's famous plan for the city of Chicago, presented to the Chicago public in 1909. Today there are more than a thousand cities in the United States which

have established official planning agencies. The programs of these city plan commissions, as they are ordinarily called, vary widely in degree of comprehensiveness and effectiveness. In recent years, particularly since 1933, their duties have expanded. The value of their techniques and procedures, of regulations which they have frequently had to draft and enforce, has been amply demonstrated.

The distinctive character of the city planner's work and the specific quality of his contribution to municipal administration are not well understood, either in official—that is, public administration—circles, or by the public in general. There is adequate popular information regarding the functions of health, police, fire, and public works departments; the plan commission, however, almost always requires an “interpreter.” Well informed people know about the antiquity of the science-and-art of city planning and often are able to recognize the great plans of the past—the Sir Christopher Wren plan of 1666, the L'Enfant plan of the early American Republic, the Burnham plan of Chicago, or the Regional plan of New York. If you ask them, however, what are the duties of the planning department of their own city you may find them unable to give you an adequate reply.

If you would know in detail what our American city plan commissions do you may refer to the titles starred in the bibliography at the end of this article. Briefly, the average or better than average commission is occupied with the following matters: (1) the conduct of surveys and research projects to determine social, economic, and physical conditions in the community; (2) on a basis of mapped, tabulated, and otherwise graphically presented survey and research material, to draft a master plan, along lines described below, for the community's future development; (3) to draft a zoning map and zoning regulations, whose function in part is to assist in carrying out and in effectuating the master plan; (4) to draft regulations for the control of standards of

subdivision platting and to administer the regulations after they are enacted; (5) to cooperate with and assist other municipal departments, and to coordinate local planning with the planning programs of other governmental jurisdictions. Prominent among new duties of a few city plan commissions is the preparation of long-range capital improvement programs, an outgrowth of the public works activity of the federal government, which instigated the creation of a national planning board.

The basic data required for city planning includes not only the land-use map showing how properties in the major classifications (residential, commercial, industrial, public and quasi-public) are utilized, but, to an increasing extent, traffic surveys, real property inventories, surveys of family composition, income, and incidence of crime and disease.¹

THE MASTER PLAN

WHEN the term master plan is employed to describe comprehensive city planning, a major thoroughfare plan, possibly a city-wide plan of both major and minor streets, and a plan for transit facilities are primary inclusions. Other features of the master plan are one or more maps showing park sites and other public and private open areas, municipal buildings, and school locations, presumably based on population and related data. The master plan in short is a concept, ordinarily reflected to a considerable extent in a series of maps, built up from knowledge of community conditions and correlated with municipal policy and objectives, which establish the location, extent and general character of municipal improvements which are projected for the period ahead. The master plan does not have the force of law, but represents only the general pattern and suggested schedule put forward by the city plan commission. Some cities are, however, using the

¹ See “Factual Bases for City Planning,” *Public Management*, June, 1939, issue. Published by International City Managers Ass'n, Chicago.

"official map" procedure. In such cases a routine is prescribed whereby the city council votes approval and commits the city to action on one or more phases of the master plan; the approved items are transferred to the official map and acquire the legal status provided by the legislative enactment.

The value to the city governing body in having an agency in the municipal government which can devote its entire attention to a study of community physical needs—reflecting social and economic needs—and recommend a course leading to ordered and balanced development, is apparent.

ZONING

ZONING is now widely accepted by the courts and by people who live in cities. Its use is also increasing in rural districts. The zoning map, based on land use and the rate of absorption of the land required for the "zones" of business, industry, and residential use, is a potentially powerful device to aid the community in growing according to a plan. It is not used to its fullest extent today. Large areas of our cities, because of limited technical data and very little actual experience, were zoned improperly in the early years of zoning. Much land was put aside for uses which did not develop and that land was prevented in many cases from being put to some other productive use. Too much land was zoned "commercial" and an insufficient amount "residential"—for there are fairly definite ratios between amounts required for business and for homes. A large number of American cities have already revised their zoning maps and ordinances on the basis of recent findings.

Zoning based on factual information regarding the city is an invaluable device for stamping the character of established and expected land use and land evolution. Some land evolves to higher uses, while other land gravitates to a lower level. Every community has within its boundaries diversified uses of land, and in most cases they are necessary and useful to the community. Yet they are not always properly related for the most

productive results. Zoning is without doubt a social invention of great importance for securing efficient divisions of function, stabilizing the functional parts of the community's land area, and protecting each major grouping of public property and private property.

THE PLANNING COMMISSIONS

CITY plan commissions have in many cities for some years been charged, in addition to the duties mentioned above, with municipal supervisory activity in connection with the platting of subdivisions. A limited number of the commissions has been given authority to pass upon the standards represented in subdividing land for building purposes—none has been given adequate power, on the basis of studies and reasonable forecasts of needs, to control the amount of land prepared for the market. Studies of the excessive amounts of subdivided land have recently been made in New York, New Jersey, Michigan, and elsewhere. The city of Detroit, cited in the Michigan study, could accommodate an additional two million people in the subdivided and platted area adjacent to the city, while within the city proper there are enough vacant lots to provide home sites for at least a million people. This waste—both of land and money—invariably comes back upon the citizens, collectively as well as individually. Only improved public support obtained through knowledge of the facts will permit those in charge of planning in cities to avoid these consequences in the future.

The connections between cities, counties, and states—and now even the regions in which the units of government lie—have been increasing rapidly. WPA, PWA, AAA, NYA, FHA, USHA—these are but a few of the new lines between the federal government and local government. CAA, FTC, ICC, SEC are symbols of federal-state collaboration.

In planning there are federal, state, county, city, township, town, borough, and

other types of units. There is a TVA at the regional planning level, and several unofficial regional planning agencies. Roads, rivers, and airlines cross jurisdiction lines as does the population which uses these facilities. Plans must be fitted together, the plans of city joining to both county and state plans. All bear relation in some way to plans of the nation, and not long hence there will no doubt be regional plans, somewhere between local and federal levels.

Additional duties have been thrust upon municipal agencies in all lines of activity; the planning departments of our cities are no exception. The activity in housing, both for the low-income and medium-income levels; the struggle with traffic and the parking problem; the renewed emphasis on public recreation—these are only a few of the challenges which most municipalities are being called upon to meet during years of depression and serious financial difficulty.

A method of control of expenditures, with emphasis on long-range expenditures for capital improvements, has been developed. The "long-term program of capital expenditures" as an aid to proper timing and budgeting of municipal improvements was inaugurated in San Diego when, in 1938, the City Plan Commission submitted a comprehensive program for "necessary improvements, together with information showing the community's ability to pay. . . ."

The city planning commission in New York City, under the provisions of the new charter which became effective in 1938, is charged with the duties embodied in the long-range financial plan, and on November 1, 1938, it submitted the first such plan for a city of metropolitan size. Without doubt there will be many cities "spending according to plan" as its logic and economy are buttressed by many demonstrations.

CITIES OF TOMORROW

IN future years present-day cities will be remodeled. Densely packed in many sections, blighted, declining and perhaps largely vacant in others, their redesign and

rebuilding, and the new extensions of corporate limits which will be witnessed in some but not all cities, will be influenced without question by what has been discovered and what has been learned in recent years. We know with greater accuracy what is happening in the fields of population, land value and taxation, functions of modern streets, trends in use of land for business, industry, residences, and the increased number of public needs.

The city planners and city administrators of today are thinking and acting in terms of balanced regional transportation systems, efficient rapid transit systems, and a well designed system of major and minor streets—looking forward to communities built up of neighborhood units with streets designed to serve local traffic only, though they feed into the main thoroughfares.

With widespread public understanding, American communities, planned and built to provide the best that modern life can offer, can become a national reality. There is no more appropriate field for exploration by teachers of the social sciences, for the city is the expression and the symbol of almost everything that is excellent as well as everything that is the reverse in our contemporary life.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, Thomas. *Outline of Town and City Planning*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1935. Pp. 368. \$3.00.
- Black, Russell Van Nest. **Planning for the Small American City*. Chicago: Public Administration Service, 1313 East 60th Street, 1933. Pp. 90. \$1.00 paper, \$1.50 cloth.
- Hubbard, Theodora Kimball, and Hubbard, Henry Vincent. **Our Cities Today and Tomorrow*. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press, 1929. Pp. 389. \$5.00.
- Mumford, Lewis. *The Culture of Cities*. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1938. Pp. 386. \$5.00.
- National Resources Committee. *Our Cities: Their Role in the National Economy*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937. Pp. 88. 50c.
- *News Letter. Published monthly by the American Society of Planning Officials, 1313 East 60th Street, Chicago. Distributed free to members, single copies available upon request.
- Planning Bibliography. Chicago: American Society of Planning Officials, 1939. Pp. 13, mimeographed. 25c.
- *Proceedings of the Conference on City Planning Administration, November 1936. Chicago: American Society of Planning Officials, 1937. Pp. 136. \$1.50.

Educating for World Citizenship

RUSSELL T. McNUTT

IF the study of history brings out one fact more distinctly than any other, it is the fact of continuous change. At some times change has come so slowly as to be perceptible only in retrospect. There have been other periods when changes have been so sweeping and have taken place with such rapidity as to make adjustment to the new conditions a most difficult task. These times have been characterized by such confusion and such bewilderment as can come only with the sudden breaking down of old institutions and established ways of life and the consequent groping about for a new sense of direction.

We are now passing through one of these periods of breath-taking change and adjustment. In its larger aspects it began with the first stages of the industrial revolution, but the tensions have become increasingly critical during the last quarter of a century. Into the maelstrom of conflict have been thrown all the new forces created by our scientific, industrial civilization, as nation has been pitted against nation and class

against class. These new factors and forces in our social, economic, and political life have presented to educators problems that have been all but overwhelming.

Instantaneous communication, rapid transportation, and the network of trade and financial relationships have made of the world one vast community, but the fact that the territory and peoples of the earth are divided into sovereign states makes the solution of world problems one of the greatest challenges now confronting human kind. If the school is to meet its obligation of training for citizenship, it can not fail to give attention to the problems of the world community.

ONE of the most vital questions involved in all education is that of aims or objectives. This opens up the whole problem of whether the schools can or should train for a new social order. Without committing ourselves too definitely to aims that may be seriously questioned, we teachers of the social studies must set our goals in terms of present and future needs. Perhaps it is impossible to produce a finished blueprint for the perfect society, but even if we can not say with finality what are the proper solutions of all present and future problems, that does not mean that we should devote our time solely to the issues of the past. It can hardly be regarded as revolutionary to hold that one of the objectives of our teaching should be to enlist the interest and enthusiasm of youth in the cause of establishing order and justice in the relations among nations.

World citizenship and international understanding in wartime? Perhaps attention to such topics is futile in the face of rising nationalism. Yet the flaws in the Versailles settlement demonstrate the need for developing wherever possible some balance and perspective. The author of this article is the head of the social science department in the Central High School, Muncie, Indiana.

There is nothing especially new in the recognition of this problem. Practically every list of general objectives for the social studies includes some reference to the furtherance of international understanding. In the volume of *Conclusions and Recommendations*, the Commission on the Social Studies in the Schools makes frequent reference to issues involving the world community.¹ Nor is the problem of importance only to the social studies. It is one of the major problems of all education. It is interesting to note that the general theme chosen for the 1938 Convention of the National Education Association was "The Responsibility of Education in Promoting World Citizenship."

IS IT TOO LATE?

WITH the objective of educating for better world relations so generally accepted, it might be supposed that our schools are already doing a good deal in this direction. Excellent programs have been in effect for some time in many schools, but, when viewed in relation to the immensity of the problem, it must be admitted that these efforts constitute only a feeble beginning.

One reason so little has been done is the fact that, whereas the post-War movement to organize the world community seemed for a time to be meeting with some success, the events of the past few years have disillusioned many persons who had hoped to see the development of a new world order. It is indeed difficult to maintain a spirit of optimism in the face of such grim realities as the actual warfare now in progress in both Europe and Asia, the gigantic armament race, the many evidences of extreme nationalism everywhere, and the repeated predictions—now in part come true—of the inevitable conflict between the totalitarian states and the democracies.

It is a rather ironic reflection upon the intelligence of mankind that, although the

fundamental needs and aims of all peoples are practically identical, the various national groups are rapidly dissipating their material and human resources in mad conflict, or preparation for conflict, with one another. Instead of using all their resources constructively to provide for material welfare and to make possible the development of a higher culture, most modern nations are impoverishing themselves by diverting vast portions of these resources into antisocial uses.

WHAT can the schools do in the face of this apparent suicidal madness?² Is the objective of a more orderly world community to be dismissed as a pious but impractical dream? Such a conclusion is hardly worthy of the social studies teacher, who should also be something of a social philosopher. His knowledge of evolutionary trends should lead to a belief in the eventual emergence of a new era of cooperative endeavor among men and nations. It is not necessary that we should all agree as to the details but some better system of human relations appears to be the only alternative to chaos.

The realist will say that already the world has gone so far in committing itself to another world war that we in the United States can not now avoid it. It is true that, as long as the issue of war or peace rests with the whim of ambitious dictators, danger is always imminent. On the other hand, it is not too late to hope that the peoples of the world—even those now at war—may come to realize that neither side can really win, and that, regardless of victory or defeat, the cost of continuing such a conflict is too great to be borne. Already the preparations for war and expenditures

² See Nelle E. Bowman, "Panel Discussion on Peace," *Social Education*, November, 1938, p. 559; Leo Litzky, "A Course in International Relations," *Social Education*, March, 1939, p. 180; Carl G. Winter, "A Unit on Peace," *Social Education*, January, 1939, p. 33; and the *Thirty-Sixth Yearbook*, Part II, of the National Society for the Study of Education, "International Understanding through the Public-School Curriculum." Bloomington, Illinois, 1937.

¹ New York: Scribners, 1934. See pages 11, 25, 39-41, 52-53, and 60-61.

on the war have resulted in materially lowering standards of living. Even if the appeal to reason fails, our efforts to educate for world citizenship should bear some fruit when the survivors of the holocaust attempt to build a new order upon the ashes of the old.

OBSTACLES TO BE OVERCOME

ASIDE from the pessimism resulting from a recent and present crises in world affairs—a state of mind that has affected teachers, students, and the general public—there are many other obstacles to effective teaching of international relations in the high school. Twenty-one such difficulties were listed by teachers answering a questionnaire sent out by a committee set up by the National Education Association in 1935.³ Only a few of these difficulties can be considered here.

One of the most perplexing problems faced by the teacher who advocates a definite program of peace education is the opposition of individuals and groups within the local community. Often school administrators discourage any program that involves risk of censure. Patriotic organizations are likely to be on guard, and the social studies teacher will soon be under suspicion. He may be classed only as a "dreamy-eyed internationalist" or, if his efforts are too obvious, he may be regarded as a genuinely "subversive influence." If the latter, his position becomes insecure.

We may be charged with disloyalty if we teach the youth of America to love peace while the youth of other lands are being taught the arts of war. The real question here is not whether our country should be adequately defended, although there may be some difference of opinion as to what constitutes adequate defense. The question is whether we can ever safely put our trust in arms alone or whether we should also aid in alleviating the conditions which divide the nations into those that desire peace and

those that threaten war. As noted at the outset, change is inevitable.

The problem facing statesmen today is to devise some technique of change other than the disastrous war system. Until this is done there can be no stability in this world of nations. The resourceful teacher should be able to build a realistic program of education in international affairs, based on such fundamentals as the fact just noted, without unduly alarming the professional patriots.

ANOTHER handicap is found in the indifference and lack of preparation on the part of many teachers. This may not be entirely the fault of the teacher. The courses in international relations in the colleges and training institutions have, until recently, been largely restricted to graduate students and a very limited number of undergraduates. Many of the courses in history failed to bring the story down to the present, so that, unless specialized courses in recent history were taken, this most important period was sadly neglected.

There are some historians and college teachers of history who still adhere to the thesis that events of the last fifty years have no rightful place in history because we can not view them with sufficient detachment. Perhaps this is correct; it depends upon one's definition of history. The fact that all the principles of historiography can not be applied to contemporary events with all the precision that would be possible in the study of ancient history does not mean that we should give no attention to current affairs. The study of history is indispensable for properly understanding the present and the problems yet to come, but for the present generation and for the citizens of tomorrow the developments of the last fifty years have more direct significance than all the other changes since the days of *pithecanthropus erectus*.

If the high schools are to do their best in the teaching of current world problems, there must be more study of this type of material included in the preparation of high

³ Nelle E. Bowman, "Educating Children for Peace," *Social Education*, March, 1938, p. 174.

school teachers. Furthermore, as many of today's problems have assumed their present form and significance since today's teachers were undergraduates, there is a vital need that every teacher should have a systematic program of continuing professional growth.

A FURTHER major difficulty is that of obtaining adequate teaching materials on the high school level. Since most of the work along this line must be done in the regular social studies classes, the type of texts used in these classes is of great importance. It is significant that the relative amount of space given to wars in our school histories has gradually declined in recent years. Since war has been one of the major activities of man throughout the ages, it must, however, have a place in history. The texts have not begun to show war in all its ghastly horror. If this picture is to be presented, it will be done through the initiative of the teacher. A few texts (e. g., Rogers, Adams, and Brown, *Story of Nations*,⁴ especially adapted for younger students in world history) have begun to present a picture of a world community.

THE more advanced students will be able to use for reference reading some of the less technical of the materials designed for college classes. A great deal of excellent material is being published in pamphlet form. Among the most useful are the *Headline Books*, *World Affairs Pamphlets*, and *Foreign Policy Reports*, all now published by the Foreign Policy Association.⁵ Such weekly publications for school use as the *American Observer*, *Weekly News Review*, *Scholastic*, *Our Times*, and *News-Week* will be found especially helpful in the regular classes, which may be able to devote a minimum of time to world affairs. Magazines, newspapers, radio, news-reel, and the many books being published for the

general reader should be used. The materials of the last-mentioned group may be of questionable reliability, and care must be exercised to see that students do not get distorted views. The effort to get opinions on all sides of controversial questions, and the analysis of propaganda agencies and methods constitute an essential part of any well planned study of contemporary problems.

A TASK FOR ALL

MUCH of this discussion has referred particularly to social studies teachers and classes in the high school, but an objective as broad as that under consideration here demands cooperative endeavor from elementary grades to the college. It is not altogether a matter of specific facts taught. What is quite as important is the spirit in which instruction is given. Several high school subjects other than the social studies can contribute much to the desired end. Scores of opportunities for promoting a better understanding and appreciation of other peoples will be found in the courses in science, literature, language, art, and music.

The subject matter of all social studies courses lends itself admirably to the furtherance of world understanding. This is particularly true of world history, modern history, economics, economic geography, and modern problems. The subject of American history has many possibilities, but, if the teacher is not somewhat world minded, this course may easily hinder rather than aid in the achievement of the objective we have in mind. We want national patriotism, but we do not want it to stand in the way of a higher citizenship. The study of current events may make one of the most important contributions of all, but it will need to be carefully organized to that end. It may easily become a superficial parroting of unrelated news items which will leave the student as bewildered as are many unfortunate adults who have no background for understanding the events of the day.

⁴ New York: Holt, 1936.

⁵ 8 West 40th Street, New York. The first two are now published by Silver Burdett Company.

A COURSE IN WORLD CITIZENSHIP

MOST teachers who desire to enlist in the cause of "waging peace" will find their fields of service in the various courses mentioned above. Some teachers and supervisors may feel that they can make a more distinct contribution through the medium of a specific course in world problems. Such courses will be found most feasible in larger schools or under conditions that permit some degree of flexibility in the matter of organization of courses. Opportunity to develop such a course could doubtless be found in many schools, if teachers possess sufficient interest, initiative, and courage.

For the past ten years a course in world citizenship has been included in the curriculum in Central High School, Muncie, Indiana. This course is offered in the second semester of the senior year to students who have done at least average work in previous social studies courses. Membership has been limited in this manner because of the problem of materials and the fact that no textbook is used.

No progressive teacher conducts the same course twice in exactly the same manner. This must be especially true of a course in current world affairs. The interests of the students and the events of the day determine in large measure the problems which will receive the greatest amount of attention. During the time our course in world citizenship has been given, there has been considerable variation as to both content and method of approach. It has been possible, however, to develop a fairly definite set of objectives and a tentative outline of units of study. Both are given below.

OBJECTIVES FOR THE COURSE IN WORLD CITIZENSHIP

1. Knowledge of
 - a. The existence of a world community—its nature and problems
 - b. The government, problems, and policies of each of the leading states and geographical regions
 - c. The machinery of international re-

lations and the organization and activities of the principal agencies for peaceful cooperation

d. The historical background and the present application of the foreign policies of the United States

e. The principal reliable sources of useful information on world problems

2. Appreciation of
 - a. The contributions to world progress made by various nations
 - b. The essential unity of interest of all peoples and the necessity for international cooperation
 - c. The rights and obligations of citizenship in the world community
 - d. The place that is occupied by the United States in the community of nations
3. Attitudes of
 - a. Good will toward all peoples
 - b. Friendly interest in the problems of other nations
 - c. Regarding war as an anachronism in modern society
 - d. Placing the interests of humanity above those of the individual or the nation
4. Habits of
 - a. Fairmindedness in the formation of opinions
 - b. Active interest in world affairs
 - c. Wide reading on problems of current interest
 - d. Considering problems from a broader point of view than that of a narrow nationalism
 - e. Promoting, by word and deed, the spirit of international cooperation
5. Skill in
 - a. The use of books, maps, and other materials needed in obtaining accurate information on world affairs
 - b. Weighing evidence and distinguishing between fact and propaganda
 - c. Selecting essential facts bearing upon a problem and separating these facts from non-essential details

UNIT OUTLINE

- Unit. I. How the Territory and Peoples of the World are Divided into States which Form a World Community
- Unit II. How the Leading States are Attempting to Solve their Domestic and Foreign Problems
- Unit III. How the States have Attempted to Develop World Organization
- Unit IV. How the Evolving Foreign Policy of the United States Affects Relations with other States

THE introductory unit provides first a study of the factors, such as communication, transportation, trade, travel, and science, which have brought the peoples of the world closer together. This is followed by a study of the states as the units in world relations. The evolution of the world community and the forces tending to bring about the never ending shifts of power are next considered. Attention is given to the geographic and other factors affecting the policies of the states. The unit is completed by a brief comparison of the different types of government as the agencies through which the various peoples of the world are trying to solve their problems.

In the second unit, each of the leading states and geographical regions is taken up for special study. Here, as throughout the entire study, emphasis is placed upon today's problems. An attempt is made, however, to get a well-rounded view of each state by considering such topics as (1) geographic and economic conditions, (2) recent historical development, (3) government, and (4) cultural contributions.

The third unit comprises a study of the means by which international relations are carried on and the movements to further international cooperation. Among the vital problems considered are the place of war in international affairs, the problem of arma-

ments, and the forces that mold public opinion.

The last unit deals with the place of the United States in world affairs. The basic factors determining our outlook on world problems are studied, but here, as elsewhere, the emphasis is placed upon recent trends and the problems of today.

CASUAL examination of the outline might seem to indicate that the study deals largely with the political phases of world relations, but within each topic stress is placed upon the economic and cultural factors. This outline is not followed rigidly, but each of the major units is given some definite consideration. The events of the day may suggest a less formal approach. The present European conflict will provide a focal point for much of the study of national problems and policies this year. The types of material included in the first and third units are too often omitted from the study of current problems. This material is necessary to give a complete picture of an evolving world community instead of merely a cross-section of the world of today.

Among the outcomes of such a course should be (1) an unusual familiarity with the world problems of today, (2) sufficient background for properly understanding the problems of tomorrow, and (3) a technique for study and analysis of problems as they arise. That the second and third of these outcomes have been achieved in many cases has been shown by the enthusiasm with which former students comment upon the way in which the course has prepared them for grasping somewhat the significance of today's epochal events.

Perhaps we may hope that such efforts may contribute presently to a more lasting peace than that which a brief twenty years have now overthrown.

A Teaching Unit on Alaska

DOROTHY FARTHING

GLIBNESS on the part of elementary school teachers about units and unit teaching has deceived many who are training technicians for participation in the field of the social studies. It has been falsely assumed that teachers who have become acquainted with the terminology of curriculum construction have also acquired techniques for the preparation and use of units. Teachers do not always realize that the curriculum committee has not assumed the responsibility of the classroom teachers, and that they must carry on from where the curriculum committee left off. Until teachers realize the difference between planning done for the teacher and that done for the pupil, and develop a technique for the latter, the social studies program is promised little success.

An attempt to develop with teachers a plan by which units could be adapted to classroom use revealed a vagueness about the meaning of the term unit. Topics of former decades are not synonymous with

units although many believe that where one used to teach a topic called Alaska one now teaches an "Alaskan unit."

THE PURPOSE OF A UNIT

It is essential that the real purpose involved in unit organization be understood before any attempt is made to describe procedures for unit preparation and use. Briefly, the unit aims to establish certain basic understandings or principles. In the social studies, these are the understandings which lead to better interpretation and evaluation of society. Facts and skills are anticipated, of course, but not as ends in themselves. They serve the larger goal of understandings.

It may be well to specify what we mean by an "understanding." A study of Alaska might emphasize the products of the territory, but the isolated facts about these products can not help pupils interpret situations which have nothing to do with Alaska. If, however, the products of Alaska are used to develop the idea that the United States and Alaska are interdependent and for that reason Alaska's products are of importance to the continental United States, the child can begin to understand basic reasons for viewpoints and attitudes of nations.

An understanding may not reach maturity in any one unit, but each unit should initiate new understandings or principles and further develop familiar ones.¹

¹It is assumed that the reader is familiar with the major objectives of the social studies program which are fundamental to a statement of anticipated under-

The term "unit" has a confusing variety of meanings, ranging from a new substitute for the word chapter to stress on understanding as opposed to knowledge or to emphasis on the need for making learning part of the actual experience of pupils. This sample unit for the intermediate grades, illustrating one widely accepted meaning, comes from a supervisor in the University of Missouri Laboratory School.

THE NEED FOR A UNIT PLAN

THE commercially published unit, textbook unit, and course-of-study unit have not eliminated the necessity for teacher planning. Teachers who use these without adaptation complain that they are deadly dull and challenge neither pupil nor teacher. Until a teacher has familiarized and identified herself with its purposes a unit can not successfully serve as a guide to greater goals.

A social studies unit plan is rarely a finished product regardless of how successful it may have proved at a previous teaching. Few units can be used twice in exactly the same way. Too often an unfavorable atmosphere exists in a classroom because a unit has become a routine matter. It seems to be as important to know how to reorganize units as to do the initial planning.

Teachers who realize that an efficient planning technique is necessary and have not yet devised a satisfactory plan of procedure may wish to consider the one offered here.

PREPARING A TEACHING UNIT

MAKING a Subject Matter Outline. It is often difficult for teachers to visualize a unit of work without the aid of a textbook, but this must be done if classroom study is to proceed by any other method than page-by-page assignment. To achieve this first and important step in preparing units, a subject-matter outline based on many sources should be prepared. The outline is used as a guide to available material.

The social studies curriculum for intermediate grades usually includes a study of Alaska. The selection of this particular unit is not defended by the writer, but since many classroom teachers find Alaska or similar areas of subject matter included in the social studies curriculum, Alaska has been chosen as a pattern for the demonstration of unit planning. The topical outline

standings. See Department of Superintendence, *Fourteenth Yearbook*, "The Social Studies Curriculum," 1936, pp. 56-59.

of subject matter used to develop the teaching unit follows:

SUBJECT-MATTER OUTLINE FOR ALASKA

- A. Purchase
 - 1. Cost
 - 2. Date
 - 3. Former owner
 - 4. Reasons for purchase
 - 5. Attitude of American people
- B. Location
 - 1. Climate
 - 2. Zone
 - 3. Surface
 - 4. Neighbors
 - 5. Distance from the United States
- C. Natural resources
- D. Limitations to development
- E. Natives
- F. Government
 - 1. Kind
 - 2. Regulations
- G. Recent uses of Alaska (colonizing)

An annotated bibliography should be developed along with the subject-matter outline.

SELECTING UNDERSTANDINGS.

The next essential step is to determine what understandings might be developed from a study of Alaska. It is unwise to attempt to establish or develop too many in any one unit. Frequently when reteaching a unit, different understandings will be selected from those chosen for the first teaching. Material which will promote these understandings is chosen from the subject-matter outline. To be specific, those chosen for the Alaskan study might be: (1) Areas are interdependent (with emphasis on the exchange of products); (2) Life in an area is an adjustment to geographic conditions (with attention to the attitude of America toward the purchase of Alaska); and (3) Exploitation of natural resources is unwise (study of industries and settlement). Certainly this does not imply that these are the only understandings that could have been chosen. That fact in itself is one which makes units flexible and adaptable.

FORMULATING PROBLEMS. The third step in preparing a unit is to formulate problems which will direct thought toward the development of the understandings. It is agreed that problems to be of value, should come from the children studying the unit. Those who have worked with children know, however, that the stage can be set in such a way that the skillful teacher may stimulate thinking in any direction. In formulating questions in advance, the teacher merely frames problems which she feels should be solved. The problems as stated by the children will embody the same idea, but may be stated in quite another way.

THE teacher should be well aware of the characteristics of a good problem. Problems which are thought provoking are stated in terms of "why," "what," and "how." The question or problem is poorly stated if it calls for an immediate response of "yes" or "no." Its solution should demand a reorganization of relevant material on the part of the child. The statement of the problem should permit of no ambiguity. The child should be able to check his solution against the statement of the problem and know when a satisfactory solution has been reached.

In following through the Alaskan unit, the following problems were stated. The points which the subject-matter outline contributed as factors to be considered for the solution are related to each problem.

1. Why was Alaska called "Seward's Folly"? (a) cost, (b) date, (c) former owner, (d) attitude of the American people, (e) climate, (f) natives, (g) location, (h) distance from the United States, (i) nation's attitude in 1867, (j) transportation of 1867, (k) conditions in the United States in 1867.

2. Why was Alaska a wise purchase? (a) neighbors, (b) resources, (c) limitations to development, (d) market for the products of the United States, (e) climate of the west coast of Alaska, (f) vacation area, and (g) regulations for protection of resources.

3. Why is Alaska called the last frontier? (a) recent settlements, (b) government, (c) agricultural experiments; (d) schools; and (e) transportation and improvement.

About the same material is covered here as is included in many textbooks, but not in page-by-page order. The textbook sequence of fact presentation can rarely be used effectively. Whether or not a fact is to be used is determined entirely by whether it serves in the solution of the problem.

SELECTING ACTIVITIES. The fourth step in preparing a unit is to provide activities. Because the philosophy promoting the activity movement is comparatively new, numerous teachers do not feel comfortable in selecting and using them. Certain attitudes toward activities which are definitely harmful to progress in the field must be dispelled. The attitude has developed that activities are additions to and frills for the unit—children read about and discuss Alaska and then they are assigned some activity, often not evaluated sufficiently to determine what it may contribute. Even where a suggested activity is truly worth introducing, teachers inexperienced in activity procedure often have difficulty in fitting it into the unit. As long as it is considered to connote the physical act only, one finds great limitations. In the best sense, it may embrace both the physical and the mental act.

Activities are not appendages to a unit. They are an integral part of it by which children acquire, improve, and fix learnings. They may be found throughout its organization—in the approach, problem solving, testing, and summary.

THE selection of suitable activities is, then, our next consideration. The problems with their related subject matter are consulted. The facts to be used in a solution must become significant to the child. When the teacher finds herself asking, "How can children be helped to realize the significance of this fact in the solution of

the problem?" she may well begin to think in terms of activity.

Among the factors to be considered for the solution of the first problem in the Alaskan unit are location, climate, and distance from the United States. Different groups or individuals may choose to collect information about various specific factors. This information when assembled must be presented to the entire class in a summarized form so that its significance may be evaluated. Individuals and groups come before the entire class with the responsibility of presenting facts which are not already known by all class members. The class as a whole evaluates the significance of the contribution to the solution of the problem.

One child may make a map showing the zones and latitude in which Alaska lies. Another may construct a chart of January and July temperatures. Another may make a graphical representation to compare time needed to travel to Alaska from Seattle in 1867 with the time required now. Yet another group may contribute sketches depicting the way the natives lived in 1867. The entire group, when it meets to discuss "Why Alaska was called Seward's Folly?" has collected some data which are so objectively framed that they must receive attention. Their significance to the solution of the problem at hand is readily seen.

BEFORE proceeding to the next consideration, data should be summarized. A summarizing activity for the first section of the unit to which the entire group could contribute might be a dramatization of a scene which would show the attitude of the people in the United States in 1867 toward purchasing Alaska. Still another activity for this phase of the unit might be to put into cartoons the factors which made the Alaskan purchase seem folly.

Throughout the presentation of the data to the group by individuals, the teacher helps to emphasize factors which will contribute to the major understandings to be achieved by the unit.

POSSIBLE activities related to definite problems which could be used to study Alaska are:

1. Why was Alaska called Seward's Folly?
 - (a) Make a bar graph to show cost of all acquisitions to the United States since 1783.
 - (b) Make a chart to show dates when possessions were acquired by the United States.
 - (c) Compare January and July temperatures of Fairbanks, Alaska, with New York City, and Columbia, Missouri.
 - (d) Make a pictograph which compares time required to travel from Seattle to Juneau in 1867 with that required now.
 - (e) Make reports on (1) the life of the Eskimo, (2) the purchase of Alaska from Russia, and (3) conditions in the United States unfavorable to the purchase of Alaska.
 - (f) Locate Alaska as to zone and latitude.
 - (g) Read opinions from old newspapers about the purchase of Alaska.
 - (h) Dramatize a scene which shows the attitude of Americans toward the purchase of Alaska.
2. Why was Alaska a wise purchase?
 - (a) Reports: Gold rush to Alaska, salmon fishing, sealing in Alaska, whaling in Alaska, trapping in Alaska, and government protection of natural resources in Alaska.
 - (b) List ten exports from the United States to Alaska.
 - (c) Compare the January and July temperatures of Juneau with those of Minneapolis.
 - (d) Write to secure tourist information about Alaska.
 - (e) Make a picture map locating interesting places to visit in Alaska.
 - (f) Construct a chart which gives the amount received annually from Alaska for gold, salmon, furs, and seals.
 - (g) Dramatize a scene from Jack London's *Call of the Wild*.
3. Why is Alaska called the last frontier?
 - (a) Read *A Race to Nome*.
 - (b) Reports: Recent settlements in Alaska, improvements made in Alaska in the schools, agricultural experiments or improved transportation.

- (c) See movies of the settlements in Alaska.
- (d) Draw scenes: winter in Alaska, summer in Alaska, or means of transportation.
- (e) Write a composition comparing pioneer life in Alaska in 1900 with that of Missouri in 1785.
- (f) Make a bibliography of interesting stories about Alaska.
- (g) Summary of unit: plan an assembly program selecting activities which will give to an audience the most important ideas that have been learned about Alaska.

Only those activities which are suitable for the individual children who will engage in them are of any value. Each activity should be one which will involve planning, execution, and evaluation by the pupils for whom it is an experience.

SELECTING AN APPROACH. An effective approach provides a link between that which the child has already learned and that which is to be learned. It also stimulates the child to further effort and study. In short, the approach purports to orient children in a new situation with reference to past experience and also to create such great interest in the new study that the children will accept the unit as their own and carry it on to completion.

An approach must be carefully selected from the array of suggested approaches which the usual unit provides. Certainly a group of children who had followed an historical thread of the expansion of the United States would need a different approach from one which had in its background an emphasis on type studies. For the former group the approach might consist of the following: A map study to show that the United States has expanded beyond the limits of the forty-eight states, reading of a quoted newspaper item using such terms as "Seward's Folly" and "The United

States' Icebox" (anticipating a statement of the first and second problems), and display of a picture from the rotogravure section which is called "Our Last Frontier" (anticipating problem 3).

SUMMARY

THE teacher has now thought through the unit, recognized her goals and has made provision to attain them. At no time should the plan be so inflexible that the children's contribution to its direction is eliminated. There is less danger of this, however, than of the teacher neglecting to plan definitely for pupil contribution. The sequence of unit planning suggested has been:

1. The development of a subject-matter outline selected from many sources.
2. A statement of understandings.
3. Formulation of problems to be solved.
4. The choice and designation of activities to proper places in the unit.
5. The development of an approach.

It will be noticed that the planning sequence has not been identical with the teaching sequence. The teacher may wish to plan for teaching in another form such as:

- A. Understandings
- B. Approach
 1. Activity
 2. Statement of problems
- C. Solution of problems
 1. Why was Alaska called "Seward's Folly"?
 - a. Activity
 2. Why was Alaska a wise purchase?
 - a. Activity
 3. Why is Alaska called the last frontier?
 - a. Activity
- D. Summarizing Activity

It is this last form which the teacher will probably use in her day by day planning.

Attitudes and Ideals in Social Studies Teaching

JOHN T. GREENAN

ONE of the Research Bulletins of the National Education Association¹ published the results of a survey of teacher opinion and practice in regard to the relative importance of subject matter and character development. Three out of every four teachers rated character the more important. However, the same teachers indicated that there was considerable lag between the ideal and the practice. It was also quite significant that teachers expressed preference for a course of study which balanced the personality needs of children with those of modern society.

When one stops to consider the matter, there has never been any real conflict in aims between teaching for knowledge and teaching for attitudes and character. In the past our immediate aim has been to teach facts, but we always hoped that these facts would be useful in producing more cultured, more patriotic, and more efficient citizens. Now we must confess that not all

¹ *Improving Social Studies Instruction*, Washington, D. C., 1937.

Although no list of objectives can now neglect ideals and attitudes, and though no good teaching has ever done so, practical programs have remained difficult to develop and more difficult to apply. This survey of possibilities is contributed by the head of the department of social studies in the Clifford J. Scott High School, East Orange, New Jersey.

of our hopes have been realized. Tests have convinced us that much of what we have taught is soon forgotten. Our crime rate has not diminished. There are still too many people who do not bother to go to the polls on election day. Profiteering and racketeering seem to be on the increase. There is still a strong tendency to seek panaceas for all of our national ills.

Of course it would be unfair to blame all of these maladjustments upon our educational systems. The assimilation of millions of immigrants, our tremendous growth, rapid industrialization, the frontier spirit, and many other factors must also be considered. But the fact remains that the family and the church are apparently unable to cope with the situation, and many school attempts at formal character education have not met their desired ends.

AS we face this situation, it might be well first to define the terms "ideals" and "attitudes." By ideals is meant "that which is conceived or taken as the highest type of excellence or ultimate object of attainment." An attitude has been defined as the "mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related."²

All of the facts we have learned and all of the experiences we have had determine our attitudes and reactions to particular

² Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938, p. 36.

situations. So, also, attitudes determine for each individual what he will hear, what he will think, and what he will do.

There are so many desirable ideals and attitudes that it would be impossible to discuss all of them. This discussion will be limited to a consideration of (1) tolerance, (2) free play of intelligence, (3) scientific thinking and critical mindedness, (4) co-operation, and (5) social sensitivity and social mindedness.

EXAMPLE VERSUS DISCIPLINE

THE development of desirable ideals and practices must grow out of example as well as precept. The best of instruction will amount to very little if the teacher himself does not practice what he preaches. There are numerous opportunities for the teacher to set a good example of willingness to co-operate with others, to exhibit social sensitivity to the needs of his students, to tolerate all viewpoints even when they are opposed to his own, and to apply democratic ideals to classroom management.

Whenever students have had the opportunity of describing their ideal teacher, they have emphasized helpfulness, sympathy, understanding, and kindness. Children are much more grateful to us for helping them to solve personal problems than for displays of outstanding scholarship. Undoubtedly there are some students who will try to fool the teacher by repeatedly presenting a sob story or by "apple-polishing," but we should aim to give all students as many privileges and as much liberty as possible until they are found to be unworthy. Then special privileges should cease.

THERE is a continuous conflict in all of us between what we consider to be our self-interest and the welfare of society. In order to be most effective, education must reconcile the self-interest of the individual with the welfare of the group. We learn most easily those things which we are convinced are worth while for us to learn. If

we require children to memorize facts which we ourselves do not consider sufficiently valuable to remember from year to year, we should not be at all surprised if they ask, "What good will this stuff ever be to me?" The application of democratic ideals suggests that we first select carefully and then try to convince students that each unit of work is worth their serious consideration.

You and I know from personal experience that we are happiest when doing things which we consider pleasant and satisfying, and psychologists confirm our belief that great fear, worry, or a sense of failure are obstacles to learning. Since most of our failures in school result from lack of interest or lack of confidence, it is necessary that we make our work as interesting as possible, and that we do all we can to develop self-confidence in our students.

WE need to be on the alert to discover causes behind failure. We must become sensitive to the needs of individual students and do everything we can to help them overcome handicaps. Let me present a particular case by way of illustration. A certain girl did poor work quite consistently for several months. Conferences and after-school assistance proved ineffective. Finally, the instructor noticed that the girl did not respond to her name when she was looking in another direction. After repeating the experiment several times, he became convinced that the girl was so hard of hearing that she depended very largely upon reading the teacher's lips to get instructions. In an after-school conference, the girl confessed that her hearing was so poor that she missed a great deal of what the instructor said. When her seat was changed to the front of the room, she showed a remarkable improvement in her work.

REBELLIOUS attitudes, poor work, and shyness frequently can be traced to a consciousness of some personal defect such as impediment in speech, overweight, large feet or hands, poor grammar, clothing very

different from the rest of the group, or difference in social position. Instead of compelling frightened students to present class reports, it is better to lead them into participation by gradual steps. As teachers it is our responsibility to discover these weaknesses and to help children to overcome them.

The desire for the esteem of our fellows is an aspiration which arises in all normal people. Occasionally all of us need praise or some expression of appreciation in order to stimulate us to greater effort. For this reason, reward and praise will usually accomplish more than punishment.

PERHAPS this appears to be more of that abominable "soft pedagogy" which only results in producing spoiled brats. We all know of parents who have loved their children so much that they could not deny them even things known to be harmful. So too, there are schools which have gone to the extreme of allowing children to do whatever they please. In their effort to make school life a happy one, such institutions have eliminated important elements of character development—such as sacrifice, struggle, and the performance of unpleasant duties. Psychologists assure us that too much success may be just as ruinous to character as too much defeat.

We might compare the old-fashioned type of education with autocratic regimentation in which the child is not expected to reason why. He is expected to do or die. On the other extreme is the advocate of soft education—he might be called the anarchist in education. He believes that rules and regulations are unnecessary—that if you appeal to the best in students they will always respond by living up to the highest ideals. But today most of us reject both of these extremes—neatly illustrated in the following rhymes:

On Being Behind with One's Reading

Junior bit the meter man.
Junior kicked the cook.

Junior's antisocial now
(According to the book.)
Junior smashed the clock and lamp.
Junior hacked the tree.
(Destructive trends are treated
In Chapters II and III.)

Junior threw his milk at mom.
Junior screamed for more.
(Notes on self-assertiveness
Are found in Chapter IV.)
Junior tossed his shoes and socks,
Out into the rain.
(Negation, that, and normal . . .
Disregard the stain.)

Junior set dad's shirt afire,
Salted grandpop's wine.
(That's to gain attention
See page 89.)
Grandpop seized a slipper and
Yanked Junior 'cross his knee.
(Grandpop hasn't read a book
Since 1893.)³

DEVELOPING TOLERANCE

INTOLERANCE is not always the result of propaganda. Sometimes it develops from ignorance or misunderstanding. We unjustly condemn the members of a certain race or religion because we do not understand their culture. We consider them queer because they do not follow the same customs as do we. Some people condemn labor unions without attempting to understand the conditions which have led to the adoption of particular policies or practices.

We must teach young people to become conscious of their own prejudices, so that their judgments may be based upon reason not upon emotion. We must teach them to recognize propaganda which is designed to muddy the waters of public opinion. By insisting upon knowledge as the basis for all discussion, we can prevent snap judgments. In Problems of Democracy, courses in mod-

³ Reprinted by special permission of *The Saturday Evening Post*, copyright 1939, by The Curtis Publishing Company.

ern problems and current-events discussions, particularly, we can lead young people to discuss important questions without calling names and without condemning those who believe differently.

THE teacher of the social studies has a unique opportunity to develop tolerance toward all racial, religious, and economic points of view.^{3a} There are still in this country racial minority groups such as the Negro, the Indian, and the Mexican whose very weakness invites exploitation.

In our efforts to retain our much prized freedom of speech and freedom of religion we must not overlook the dangers inherent in economic intolerance. Far too often freedom of speech is interpreted to mean freedom of speech for those who think as we do, but not for those who think differently. We must teach our young people to be wary of accepting epithets such as reactionary, radical, red, fascist, and communist.

Frequent socialized discussions offer many opportunities for training in tolerance and self-control. An extremist who finds himself standing quite alone on numerous occasions gradually learns to examine his own thought processes and to adopt more rational views. Insistence upon facts rather than emotional displays is very important. The use of tact in presenting an opposing point of view so as not to hurt anybody's feelings is readily cultivated by young people. As a matter of fact, high school children frequently exhibit greater tact than do their instructors.

Young people should also be made to see how unfair it is to condemn a whole group because of the faults of a few. It is a good idea to begin by reminding the students how frequently the name of the high school suffers because of the thoughtless acts of a few, and then show how the same thing may be true of religious, racial, or economic groups.

^{3a} For textbook shortcomings see Bessie L. Pierce, *Civic Attitudes in American School Textbooks*. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1930.

FREE PLAY OF INTELLIGENCE

IN a democracy there is always the danger that equality of opportunity will be interpreted to mean that all should be alike. This in turn places a premium on mediocrity as the mob tries to pull everybody down to its own level. In school we frequently see this tendency illustrated in the acceptance of the ideal of a passing mark as the goal of all endeavor. Then, too, where there are large classes, so much of the teacher's time is devoted to the weaklings that the more able students lose interest.

In our efforts to eliminate this evil by working out differentiated assignments, we have frequently erred in emphasizing quantity rather than quality. The better students are justly resentful if they feel that they are being penalized by the requirement to do more work than the average. Even though it is extremely difficult to accomplish, we must strive to challenge the interest and ability of students of high intelligence. We must provide ample opportunity for the development of leaders as well as followers.

Opportunities for special investigations frequently arise out of classroom discussions when authorities appear to be in disagreement or a difficult point needs clarification. At first thought, famous reference works such as Bryce's *Modern Democracies*,⁴ the Hoover Committee's report on *Recent Social Trends*,⁵ Darwin's *Descent of Man*,⁶ Marx's *Das Kapital*,⁷ or reports of the Brookings Institution—all are unsuitable for the average high school senior, yet if properly introduced they can challenge the interest of those who should be trained for future leadership.

SCIENTIFIC THINKING

THE need for training in critical and scientific thinking is quite apparent in the adult world all around us, and it is not at all surprising that we find many evidences

⁴ James Bryce, New York, Macmillan, 1924.

⁵ New York, McGraw-Hill, 1933.

⁶ Charles Darwin, New York, Appleton-Century, 1927.

⁷ Karl Marx, New York, Modern Library, 1932.

of it in the classroom. A few eleventh-grade students recently argued that if we knew less of the truth about our past history, we would be more patriotic citizens. Of course they were confusing hero worship with intelligent appreciation. A boy expressed the opinion that Negro slavery was a good thing because many of the slaves were better off than unemployed Negroes of today. He erred in comparing the best of one age with the most unfortunate of another—he was comparing unlike things. Another boy argued that the Mexican War was justifiable because it gave us territory clear to the Pacific Ocean, and we were more capable of developing the natural resources than were the Mexicans. When reminded that this was exactly the same argument used by Mussolini in regard to Ethiopia, and by Japan in China, he readily saw that the end did not justify the means.

In this age when advertising and propaganda have become "fine arts" it is essential that students be trained to distinguish truth from fiction. One of the favorite devices of the propagandist is the use of clichés and slogans which are repeated so frequently that very soon we accept them as true. Just consider the harm that has been done by the wide acceptance of the statement "You can't change human nature." If this statement is true, then we might as well close all of our schools and churches. How many times the Bible statement has been quoted "the poor you will always have with you" to justify a do-nothing policy in regard to poverty.

Since all of our attitudes are based upon generalizations resulting from past knowledge and experience, it is very important that students receive training in reasoning from facts. In twelfth-year courses in political, social, or economic problems some time should be spent at the beginning of the year in training students in the scientific technique of problem solving—considering all sides of controversial questions, gathering all possible facts before making a generalization, refusing to permit prejudices

and preconceived notions to interfere with accurate reasoning, and finally, being willing to revise conclusions in the light of new evidence.

A unit on public opinion and propaganda affords excellent opportunities to show students how prejudices inflamed by slogans and clichés are used by selfish groups to influence us into following courses of action which may be anti-social.

PRACTICE IN COOPERATION

MOST intelligent people know that the rugged individualism which made ours one of the foremost nations of the world is of less importance today than it was a hundred years ago. Every new invention that has had a part in stimulating mass production and every device of modern transportation and communication has increased our dependence upon one another. And yet even today many of us continue to think in terms of an agricultural society. The report of the Hoover Committee on *Recent Social Trends* accomplished more than any other single agency in making us conscious of the tremendous lag which has developed between our industrial life and such institutions as government, education, the family, and the church. Much of the recent New Deal legislation intended to regulate business was inspired by this report, and it represents an effort to lessen the lag which exists between industry and government. Recent efforts by educational leaders to link education more closely with life is another example of efforts to lessen social lag.

DURING the nineteenth century even our schools exalted the "live-wire," the "go-getter," and the millionaire as the great American heroes. Now our schools are trying to prepare young people for cooperative living. This new instruction is based, first, on a study of contemporary institutions which will reveal the need for cooperation, and second, on the use of methods of instruction which will give young people training in working together.

The study of almost any of our contemporary institutions will reveal the interdependence of national and even international life. Mass production, the tariff, unemployment, the business cycle, or community welfare—a study of any one of these must convince the most skeptical that we are our brothers' keepers. A study of banking, insurance, consumer problems, and even safety-first, may well illustrate the necessity for cooperation in solving these complex problems. It is very important that we emphasize the concept of government in a democracy as an agency created to assist us to do cooperatively what we can not do individually.

Habits and attitudes of cooperation can be developed in class through activities which require members of the class to work together on committees. Cooperative planning, dramatizations, class organization, school elections, and mock sessions of legislative bodies, will all help students to develop willingness and ability to cooperate with others.

Undoubtedly the increasing popularity of education through activities is in part due to the opportunity such projects offer for practice in cooperation. Though, in some schools this form of education has been carried to such an extreme that the form has been mistaken for the substance, the amount of activity and confusion that is apparent in the room has taken on a new significance. In many schools quiet and decorum are considered symbols of stagnation and death.

SOCIAL SENSITIVITY

IN teaching for social sensitivity and social mindedness we must try to develop attitudes of sympathetic concern for those members of society who are not as well off as we are, and the desire to do something about it. Too frequently in the past we have created a consciousness of social and political evils, but our instruction has been so academic that the student has not felt any personal responsibility to do something

about the problems. Probably this is the reason why so little of our instruction in civics has contributed to better government.

Training of this kind should begin with the school as a laboratory. Frank and fearless discussion of school policies and problems should always encourage consideration of the question "What can we do about it?" A sense of responsibility is best developed by giving students opportunity to participate in class and school management. Chairmanship of class groups when the teacher is absent, supervision of study halls, corridors, and lunch rooms, the planning of auditorium programs, and student courts for the trial of minor offenders all help to develop a sense of social responsibility.

OFTEN when the teacher consults with students in regard to the reasons for certain anti-social attitudes in particular students, he will receive much valuable information about the conditions in the home. A child acts surly because he has been nagged so much at home that he gets the impression that everybody is picking on him. Another is an only child who has been so badly spoiled that he resents all correction. Still another is a newcomer to the community and because of shyness it is difficult for him to make friends. Cooperation between students and the instructor often reveals ways of solving such personality problems, and at the same time develops in children a sense of responsibility for the welfare of others.

A great deal of harm can be done by teachers who outrage young people's sense of justice. Nothing will do more to destroy the usefulness of a teacher than showing favoritism to particular individuals. It is utterly wrong to take the worst boy in school and give him a position of leadership in order to reform him. In such cases the price of reform is too great when the sense of justice of all of the other students is demoralized. Certainly you can not blame them if they conclude that crime does pay.

WILLINGNESS to make sacrifices for the welfare of the group can readily be developed through many of the social studies. In civics classes young people should be made to see that although city ordinances and state and national laws sometimes result in personal hardships, they are usually working for the good of the group. Health ordinances, building codes, and traffic laws are excellent examples of this truth. The student should leave the study of civics with the feeling that he has certain civic duties to perform in return for the rights and privileges the government gives him.

The course in Problems of Democracy offers valuable opportunities to develop social sensitivity and social mindedness. The problems of crime, poverty, unemployment, and racial and religious intolerance present challenges to the socially minded as great as do those of industrial chemistry or aviation to the scientifically minded. As a matter of fact, even our scientists are greatly disturbed over the lag which exists between pure science and our social institutions.

IN addition to social mindedness, there is another attitude which seems essential, and that is intelligent optimism. Most young people are naturally optimistic provided they have not come under the influence of pessimistic and cynical adults. There should be no place in the secondary school for the teacher who delights in smashing youthful ideals or destroying the crusading spirit of youth.

This does not mean that we should develop "Pollyannas." It does mean, however, that our institutions should be studied realistically and in every case the possibilities of future progress should be indicated.

Without intelligent optimism there is little hope for progress.

WE must not lose sight in our striving for development of lofty ideals of such prosaic things as honesty, punctuality, dependability, and neatness. Take for example the matter of cheating in examinations which is so common in schools where teachers are not alive to their responsibilities. Where cheating is a common practice not only do honest students lose respect for their teachers, but they soon begin to wonder whether it is true that "only saps work; the wise guy lives by his wits."

Where cheating is common, a real attempt should be made through discussion to develop a public opinion which disapproves of such practices. Few students will cheat if they know that their classmates consider it contemptible. The certainty of punishment, however, is the only thing which will act as a deterrent for a few of the habitual offenders.

Of course this emphasis on the development of attitudes and ideals is still in an experimental state, and there remain many unanswered questions in connection with it. To what extent shall we use emotional appeals for the development of high ideals and desirable attitudes? Will the indoctrination of ideals and attitudes prove to be the first step toward the indoctrination of solutions of problems? Will the inculcation of desirable attitudes and ideals succeed in improving the character of the next generation? Since the emphasis upon teaching for knowledge has thus far done little to improve character, the least we can do is shift our emphasis to conscious striving for improved ideals and attitudes.

Have You Read?

FRANCES S. BROWNLEE

ALTHOUGH India is officially at war with Germany she is by no means fighting shoulder to shoulder with Great Britain. For several weeks the National Congress Party had sought some assurance from Britain that the Allies were this time defending a true democracy which "would embrace even India," but the vague promise that the present constitutional status of India would be modified in accordance with Indian views at the conclusion of the war has been far from satisfactory. Indian nationalists now seem convinced that there will be no democracy for India so long as England can possibly prevent it. According to the Indian scholar Krishnalal Shridharani, in the *New Republic* for November 15, there may still be a chance that the Laborites in England will successfully challenge the British government to proclaim freedom for India as one of the war aims. "Such action would give . . . positive proof of Britain's sincerity in her profession of democracy and win India as a willing ally." We too wonder, "Is This India's Chance?"

In the November 25 issue of the *Nation* the same author discusses "India's War Within a War." It is not very difficult to understand that country's present attitude when we realize that India contributed \$500,000,000 to the Allies during the last war; purchased \$700,000,000 worth of war bonds; sent \$1,250,000,000 worth of finished products to care for Allied needs; and dispatched 1,338,620 Indian soldiers to the various battlefields in France, Palestine, Syria, and Mesopotamia—"178,000, more

men than all the troops contributed by the dominions of Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand." For these services rendered Britain had promised dominion status to India. This promise, we know, has not yet been fulfilled.

In protest against Britain's denial of democracy to India, the National Congress ministers who governed eight of the eleven provinces of British India resigned the last week in October, and Gandhi announced his intention to resort to civil disobedience. "The Nationalists are counting on India's strength, the power of millions galvanized by political consciousness. Twenty-five years of strong organization and stern discipline have made the National Congress into a political machine which, the Nationalists feel, is prepared to cope with all eventualities. In rejecting the Congress demand, on the other hand, Britain seems to be counting on India's weakness, its internal dissensions and its impotence against external foes. Thus the present deadlock is inspired by contradictory appraisals of the complexity of India, and only time can establish the validity of one against the other."

THE British author of *Rebel India*, H. N. Brailsford, briefly traces the important developments of the past twenty years which have culminated in the present stirrings of revolt in "India in the War." In the *New Republic* for November 22 he writes that the Indians were sharply reminded of their impotence in regard to national policy in August when their "troops were sent, silently and without debate or the consent

of their representatives, to Egypt, Aden and Singapore." And "then came the passage in one rushed sitting at Westminster of an amending act that conferred on the Viceroy the most formidable emergency powers for the event of war. Finally, as the automatic consequence of events in Europe, by Viceroy's proclamation, India entered the war as a belligerent." But the Indians did not agree that 300,000,000 human beings should assume the burdens of war at the behest of a cable from London. Certainly they wished to support the western democracies against the fascist aggressor, but their own self-respect had been touched. "Unfree themselves, were they to fight at England's bidding to win freedom for others?"

MANY of us have asked why the Chamberlain government which did nothing to save democratic Czechoslovakia in September, 1938, went so far as to declare war on Germany in behalf of semi-fascist Poland in September, 1939. One interpretation of this policy is based on the assumption that England was again anxious to encircle Germany with a ring of hostile alliances. The appeasement at Munich is seen merely as an attempt to delay hostilities until Great Britain was effectively rearmed. The Nazis themselves are proponents of this argument.

Quite a contrary view, however, presupposes that the British government was far from anxious to harm Germany. In fact, Great Britain looked to strengthen German power as a bulwark against Soviet Russia, and Munich seemed a likely way of doing so. The realization that Nazi Germany was becoming a veritable Frankenstein finally forced Britain into the present war.

Preston Slosson, who recently spent some time in England as a visiting professor, offers still another explanation of "Why Britain Vacillated" in the December number of *Events*. Professor Slosson reminds us that Great Britain is, after all, still a democracy and we therefore can not discuss British diplomacy merely in terms of Prime Minister Chamberlain and Foreign Secre-

tary Halifax. We must consider also the "nonconformist chapels in Wales, conscientious objectors, trade unions, the League of Nations Union, the bawling isolationists in the press (of the Rothermere-Beaverbrook school), the subtle social influence of country-house weekends, the effect of the munitions boom in reducing unemployment, factional and personal jealousies within the parties in Parliament, the possible attitude of India, the current level of loyalty in Quebec and South Africa and Ireland, the fears of mothers—voters all—for their children exposed to air raids. . . ." All of these factors tend to modify the behavior of Britain's rulers.

And yet, it seems to be "a settled axiom of policy among the British that the supremacy of the seas must be in their hands, that no single power must dominate the entire European continent, and that the Low Countries . . . must not be invaded. In these matters they find their security directly involved, and for these objects, however grudgingly and reluctantly, they will always fight. The national dislike of war, constantly interacting with the belief that the balance of power must not be tilted as to endanger British security, largely explains the vacillation of British policy in recent years."

HOPE FOR THE INTELLECTUAL

BEFORE the outbreak of the present European conflict there was a good deal of morbid speculation about the utterly hopeless civilization which would be left in its wake. We know that this war has already wrought death and destruction, but is there no hope for the future? In *Common Sense* for December five leading intellectuals discuss "What Hope for Civilization?" The British biologist, Lancelot Hogben, sees "the only reasonable basis for cheerfulness about the possibility of progress towards a collectivist economy of abundance" in America's keeping out of the war. On the other hand, Theodore Dreiser looks toward the east for the civilization which

will not pass but "will proceed in a new form." Upton Sinclair, social reformer since the days of the Muckrakers, believes that the present war will leave the belligerents in such a state of exhaustion and breakdown that a more social organization of finance and industry will be an immediate necessity, and although the war may temporarily alleviate the unemployment problem in the United States we will not be able to escape the post-war breakdown either. It has been estimated that we will then have between twenty and thirty million unemployed. "Our national credit may be equal to keeping them alive a year or two, but the change from capitalism will have to be made very quickly." Stuart Chase, however, does not foresee any such drastic change. He maintains that a United States of Europe can solve most of the present problems. Europe's "political and economic structures are incommensurable. She must align them or perish as a center of civilization." The most definite hope that John Dewey entertains for the future, however, does not concern the external economic and political results of the war but rather "a change which is already beginning in human attitudes, the factors which in the end influence external results." He believes that "the world is passing from a pacifism which is mainly subjective to a realistic attitude based upon technological and scientific grounds—which diplomats and political leaders must henceforth take into account in making their plans."

IN the December issue of *Harpers* Harold J. Laski defines an "intellectual" as "the man whose business it is to speculate upon the essential problems of his age." It matters little whether he is an artist, a chemist, a teacher, or a trade union leader—"so long as he is seeking to make the specialism in which he is involved a bridge from the particular to the universal."

"The Duty of the Intellectual Now" is to help the men and women of our time to a better understanding of this insecure

world of ours, and in so doing to conquer that very insecurity. The struggle for mental and moral freedom is indissolubly bound to this hope for a better world. For without it "men cannot report their experience, and their grievances go unremedied." Professor Laski argues that the intellectual "must be permanently concerned to maintain the conditions without which there will be admitted no right to speak freely. There will be no such right in war; there will be no such right either in dictatorial regimes. The intellectual, therefore, must battle for peace and against dictatorship. But if he is to battle he must know the conditions which destroy peace and make for the coming of dictatorship. He must know them not as private knowledge but as active. He must feel . . . that responsibility about each of them is inherent in him personally. To assume that they are not his concern is to become, implicitly, a part of the forces which destroy peace and make dictatorships."

POWER IN GERMANY

THE first of what promises to be a very interesting series of articles on Germany is presented in *Fortune* for October. Early in 1939 a representative from the magazine was sent into Germany to collect some reliable information about the regime. This was done of course without the knowledge of the Nazi officials. The observations and reports which were brought back were checked as carefully as possible and combined with such reliable data as were already on hand. The first installment of the "Primer of Germany" deals with the economic structure of that "second greatest industrial nation" whose natural resources are "almost negligible." The two Four Year Plans "which embody the policies behind the scarehead news that has been issuing from Berlin" during these past few years are carefully examined in light of the objectives of the National Socialist regime. The text is very well supplemented by colorful maps and charts which vividly illustrate

important facts about the economic life of the country. There are also several good illustrations of "ersatz" products.

From Berlin, Oswald Garrison Villard reports in the *Nation* for November 25 that although Germany wants peace the present plans for war "take one's breath away, they are so utterly horrifying." The idea of lightening war has not been abandoned and Nazis still talk of overwhelming England as rapidly as they conquered Poland. "No concealment is made of the fact that they have something very big up their sleeves. One man connected with the high command even talks of German guns at Calais in two months." They are certain, moreover, that the invincible British navy can be taken care of by German submarines. It is generally believed that the Germans can build submarines faster than the British can sink them and Nazis say that there will be a sea war next June or July "which will put an end to the British Empire in very short order"—if it survives till then.

Practically all Germans, anti-Nazis included, believe that the British blockade will be unsuccessful. "Germany Has Power" and will not be starved out. "With the German people so well regimented and obedient and everything rationed at the start there will be enough food to pull through on."

In the December 2 issue of the *Nation* Mr Villard elaborates on "Germany's Hopes and Plans."

THE conservative alliance of industrialists, landowners, and army generals which supported Hitler in 1933 may no longer be satisfied with the Nazi regime but there seems to be little that they can do about that situation now. In the *New Republic* for December 6 Guenter Reimann, a German economist now living in the United States, writes of the impotence of the conservative forces. The question of a "Revolt from the Right in Germany?" seems pretty far fetched at this point. The conservatives "feel that this war which they opposed will end badly, yet they are unable to make any

independent move that will protect them against a national disaster. Hitler holds them at bay not merely through his secret police but also by having made sure that nothing of the old system would remain if the structure he has built should fall." The threat of Communism is still effective.

EUROPE'S WAR POTENTIAL

EXPERTS obviously do not agree in their estimates of the possible outcomes of the present war but they all realize that the military equipment of a belligerent does not necessarily spell its victory or doom. More decisive in modern warfare than tanks, guns, planes, and soldiers is the economic potential of the nation in arms.

In the October 15 *Foreign Policy Reports* "Europe's Economic War Potential" is submitted to careful analysis by John C. deWilde, James Fredrick Green, and Howard J. Trueblood, who maintain that the factors which constitute the economic potential of a country center about the national industrial capacity. There is little hope, therefore, for the belligerent nation which does not possess a substantial iron and steel industry. "Well-developed engineering, automotive, and chemical industries are also essential, for these are capable of rapid conversion for the production of arms and ammunition." But most important on this score is "a continuous and sufficient supply of raw materials—the sinews of war" without which factories and plants are of little use. Iron, coal, and petroleum are of primary importance, although considerable amounts of rubber, copper, bauxite, zinc, lead, sulphur, nitrates, manganese, and gun cotton must also be available.

The fact that most nations are far from self-sufficient means that a belligerent's "ability to draw on foreign sources of supply" is another important element of economic war potential. Whether or not sufficient quantities of raw materials and food will be available depends in turn on the importer's "strategic position, the availability

of transport such as railways or merchant shipping, and the means of payment at its disposal." Still other factors to be considered in any evaluation of war potential are "the size and quality of the labor supply" and "the extent to which a country has made economic preparations in anticipation of war."

An enlightening appraisal of the economic strength of the present, as well as the potential belligerents, based on the position of each with respect to all of the above mentioned factors is included in the report.

ON THE WAR NEWS

ACCORDING to Lowell M. Limpus of the military intelligence reserve, we should certainly not believe what we read in the papers particularly when it's war news we're after. Most of us were probably deceived by the recent headline which proclaimed that Finland had mobilized 300,000 troops, but any military man would have said, "It's a Military Impossibility." Finland didn't mobilize that number of troops for the simple reason that she didn't have any such force. Military experts "knew that the Finns mobilized on the first day a total of three infantry divisions, one cavalry brigade, and a single tank company. They totaled about thirty thousand men." A sizeable discrepancy indeed.

In the December *Forum* Captain Limpus enumerates a few simple principles which should enable us to sift out the erroneous reports. Rule number one: "Don't swallow flat statements about 'millions' of men." ("The experts laughed over the reports of the eight million Frenchmen and the four million Russians sweeping into action during the first days of the war because they knew neither country could muster a fraction of such a force in the elapsed time.") The second rule is: "Compare divisions available—not total numbers of men—whenver possible." (Modern wars are not fought by masses of men. The division "is the regular fighting team, composed of allied combat branches, which swings into action and

actually does battle.") The third rule is: "Don't expect armies to move fast." ("Our own general staff sets an average daily advance of ten miles as the standard. And an army which is driving the enemy back at the rate of six miles per day is scoring a smashing success.") We are also cautioned against relying too much on reports of "brief battles." A modern battle is more likely to be a long-drawn-out affair. Headlines that purport to tell the "decisive" results of a "battle" six hours after an attack are really reporting preliminary skirmishes. Remember that "Austria won a whole series of minor engagements in the 1914 Galicia campaign, but the battle proper lasted 10 days, and, when it was over, her armies fell back, never to return." The final rule is: "Don't expect the obvious." (Usually a military move is not as simple as it seems on the map—and, if it is, the enemy has probably figured it out, too.) Now then, bring on the dispatches!

PUBLIC OPINION POLLS

THE public-opinion poll has become an institution in American life and as such, authorities seem to agree, it warrants very careful watching. Paul Studenski, who has been a research director or consultant on various federal, state, and municipal investigations, reports on "How Polls Can Mislead" in the December *Harpers*. Apparently, even the best polls err in that they frequently "pose broad sweeping questions dealing with complex issues, assume that they can be answered in a categorical 'yes' or 'no' fashion, and offer little opportunity for the scoring of qualified or conditional answers. Other polls have been characterized by slipshod methods and a tendency to sacrifice truth in favor of sensationalism or outright propaganda, and to misrepresent public opinion on certain issues, unwittingly or deliberately, either through a misleading formulation of questions or through the taking of inadequate and unrepresentative samples of opinion." By way of demonstration Professor Studenski cites the results of

an experiment involving a recent national poll. This poll had been conducted on behalf of a national organization of employers with the stated purpose of finding out "what the public actually thinks" about business practices.

Immediately after the publication of the results of this poll the author conducted a poll on the same questions among a group of 150 students in the Summer School of Commerce at New York University and followed it a week later with another poll in which the same basic questions were reworded in a more definite and unbiased manner. The results of the second poll were remarkably unlike those obtained in the first poll. The first poll misrepresented the true opinions of the persons polled. Can you see now "that polls of public opinion may be so framed as to influence those polled to give certain answers, and that pressure groups, assisted by professional poll-taking organizations may use polls for propaganda purposes"?

LINDSAY ROGERS of the department of Public Law at Columbia University contributes a critical analysis of "Dr Gallup's Statistics" in the *New Republic* for November 1. Granting that the results of the American Institute of Public Opinion polls are accurate as far as they go, it seems fitting to ask "how illuminating are they?" Although we are informed that 76 per cent of our fellow countrymen think that the United States would be drawn into a general European war and 24 per cent believe that we would stay out, we do not and very likely can not learn from such a poll how intensely these opinions are held.

THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

IN "the capital of the world's greatest democracy" a Fine Arts Commission prohibits the erection of inelegant buildings on important streets, but tuberculosis and venereal disease go unchecked. During the eight years 1926-34, tuberculosis took 123 lives in Washington, D. C., for every 79 in seventeen other cities of similar size. Some encouraging gains have been reported in the last few years, but a recent survey disclosed that there is still twice as much venereal disease in Washington as in other comparable cities. In the *Forum* for December Merlo J. Pusey further points out that of ninety-three cities with populations of more than 100,000 "Washington: a National Disgrace" was among the 10 per cent with the highest crime rate. And in the handling of unemployment Washington seems to be still less of a model city. "It is the only large city in the country according no relief to depression victims able to work. Jobless breadwinners who cannot find places on some WPA project have the alternatives of letting their families go hungry or of deserting them. In the latter case, the family becomes eligible for public assistance—if any funds are available."

This department calls attention to recent articles in popular or semi-popular magazines that should be of special interest to social studies teachers. The articles are not summarized; rather a range of ideas on current topics is presented together with references to fuller treatments.

NOTES AND NEWS

KANSAS CITY MEETING

In spite of the divided celebration of Thanksgiving, the Kansas City meeting on November 24-25 was one of the largest ever sponsored by the National Council for the Social Studies; only the New York City meeting in 1935 exceeded it in attendance. Twenty-five states and all sections except the Southeast were represented. A carefully balanced program, for which Vice-President Howard R. Anderson, was chiefly responsible, extraordinarily thoughtful planning by the committee on local arrangements, and good weather all contributed to the attractiveness and satisfaction of the sessions.

George Melcher, superintendent of schools in Kansas City, Missouri, opened the sessions, held at the Hotel Muehlebach, on Friday morning with a thoughtful and stimulating evaluation of our education for civic responsibility. Civic efficiency in America, he pointed out, requires not merely following orders; it requires participating in decisions, showing active interest in general welfare, and being willing to make personal sacrifices. He noted the weak spots in civic life—the apathy of voters, after the long struggle for the right to vote; corruption in government, especially in state and local government, together with some inefficiency in the national government; and the dangers of propaganda and demagoguery.

Though the school is an institution supplementary to the home and the church, Mr Melcher called attention to its heavy responsibility in civic training, since it is maintained by the state largely for that specific purpose, and since the perpetuity of democracy depends on the schools. Observing that knowledge is power but is not virtue, he commented that the results of good civic teaching are not measured in exams at the end of a semester, and stressed

the responsibility of the whole school program as well as of the social studies. He recommended appointment of teachers specially concerned with social responsibility, comparable to staff members specially concerned with health, charged with the coordination and articulation of the whole school program and perhaps with directing the use of society, past and present, remote and immediate, as a civic laboratory.

Accepting the need for condemning corruption, Mr Melcher warned against portraying politics as dirty; democracy is clean, and politics, through which democracy must function, can be just as clean. Democracy, he concluded, demands a price; civic instruction must make youth aware of and ready to pay that price.

Miss West's presidential address, "The National Council and the Social Studies Teacher," will be published in this journal in February.

The *Tenth Yearbook*, on "The In-Service Growth of Social Studies Teachers," was presented, in the enforced absence of the editor, Burr W. Phillips, by James A. Michener of Harvard University, and was discussed by C. H. Cross, director of teacher training at the University of Arkansas, and by R. O. Hughes of Pittsburgh.

The five luncheon round tables on Friday were very well attended—most of them to capacity. Four of the basic addresses, one by John M. Cassels of the Institute for Consumer Education, Stephens College, on "The Consumer Approach on Consumer Education," one by Andrew W. Cordier of Manchester College on "Power Politics and the Peace of Europe," one by Wayland W. Osborn of Central College, Iowa, on "Education against Propaganda," and one by Raymond W. Lussenhop of Austin High School, Chicago, on "The American

Farmer: His Problems and Prospects," were very well received; it is hoped that they will be available for publication in *Social Education*.

In the fifth round-table session on "Civic Education in a Critical Era," from which many had to be turned away, Howard E. Wilson, substituting for William G. Carr, described briefly the current civic-education project of the Educational Policies Commission, and emphasized three points: (1) Increasingly in our thought and practice, civic education is a matter of *participation* in group living—in clubs, student government, community enterprises, democratic classrooms, and the like. This is excellent so far as it goes. (2) Yet unless this participation is intimately related to conscious intellectual analysis of democracy as a way of life, the participation will be ineffective. We are in danger of creating a dual school system—one centering on participation and the other on subjects, courses of study, increasingly regarded as pedantic. The two approaches must be merged. (3) In the name of democracy we are permitting much slipshod work in schools and in public life. Inefficiency, however, is not a characteristic of democracy but of ignorance and low standards. Our job is partly to equip individuals with standards of individual action and performance which will enable him to assume both the liberties and the responsibilities of democratic citizenship.

"*The Future of the Social Studies.*" Over 700 people crowded the Friday afternoon session at which the National Council's bulletin, "The Future of the Social Studies," edited by James A. Michener, was discussed. O. M. Dickerson of the Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, demonstrated the existing confusion with tabular analyses both of the recommendations included in the Bulletin and of a wide variety of offerings in high schools of Colorado, Iowa, Nebraska, Missouri, and Kansas. He was critical of the ever-increasing spread of subjects, of the neglect of fundamentals once generally accepted, and of a superficiality which seems related both to the spread of subject matter and to lack of agreement on essentials.

Mary G. Kelty dealt with the proposal in the Bulletin in relation to the elementary school curriculum. Reminding the audience that elementary school teachers are not "special teachers," she urged the desirability of collab-

oration with other national associations rather than multiplication of separate and often conflicting proposals. She noted the acceptance in the various proposals of consideration of the contemporary scene, and current emphasis on community study.

So far as specific proposals are concerned, Miss Kelty found substantial agreement on study of the immediate environment for the first and second grades, but difference as to whether the immediate or a wider scene be considered in the third grade. The proposals for the fourth grade spread very widely, with ten proposals from thirteen contributors. The fifth-grade recommendations have considerable spread with, however, some central tendency towards American civilization, while the sixth-grade central tendency is toward the development of European civilization, with some support for further attention to American culture. Miss Kelty found some consensus on provision for democratic living through group management of group affairs, on actual participation in enterprises for community betterment, and on systematic consideration, beginning in the middle grades, of current topics.

Miss Kelty also stressed the need for differentiating the program and activities for "non-academics," inclining to the view that some administrative reorganizations are prerequisite to effective curriculum building. Finally, Miss Kelty recommended two-volume texts for each grade as a practical and needed first step in overcoming the weakness of teaching where a single text, with no outside readings, is the only teaching material available.

Erling M. Hunt of Columbia University found considerable agreement in the Bulletin's recommendations on American history for the eleventh grade and even more for modern problems in the twelfth. Proposals for grades seven through ten tended to include both American and European history, though there are differences in regard to exact grade placement. There was some, though not general, recommendation of civics, but little attention to geography.

Most of the programs draw heavily on the past as well as the present—on history, geography, civics, economics, sociology and the community, and current events, and somewhat on social psychology. The divergent proposals start with immediate problems of society or of

the individual, reducing organized bodies of knowledge to a secondary, if not purely incidental, position, and implying some willingness to reject constants in the curriculum.

Mr Hunt commented on the scarcity of specific references to current events, on the infrequent mention of specific attitudes and skills, and on the small amount of specific attention to literature, the arts, and science. Similarly Mr Hunt found little attention to differentiation for age and ability—to the non-academics and the intellectually gifted.

On the other hand, the programs do have in common much interest in democratic citizenship, community study, development of pupil responsibility, and the meeting of personal and guidance needs.

Mr Hunt believed that there is some tendency to mistake the problems of society for urgent problems of youth, and that the constant broadening of the program and adding of new responsibilities to teachers is so overstraining the resources of teachers that the effectiveness of education is being impaired. He doubted that the variety of programs offered in the Bulletin could substantially reduce the confusion of teachers, or provide substantial reassurance or guidance in regard to the curriculum.

Francis T. Spaulding of Harvard University found much substantial agreement in the Bulletin. He counselled expanding the program of the first three grades into later years, making the criterion "What does this content do to pupils? How does it change their acts?"

Harold Rugg of Columbia University supported Professor Spaulding's view; the need is to put youth in touch with life as it is lived in America today. Questions as to the grade placement of history he thought unimportant; it is important only that history be taught. He proposed a yearbook or bulletin on the effect of the present European war on the United States, or on "war and peace." He protested against too much academic aloofness from affairs, too much dwelling in an ivory tower. Mr Rugg also called attention to the "witch-hunt" that is now threatening to stifle democracy in this country and attempting to bar some problems from consideration in the schools. He noted some vigorous rising against the movement, but urged united resistance. He urged a frontal attack in all education on the factors consti-

tuting American problems and the factors retarding our advance; he proposed that the National Council get out bulletins, and that members organize discussion groups for groups—including parents—over the country.

Walter E. Myer, director of Civic Education Service, found grounds for optimism in the reorganization that has taken place in the school program, in spite of the current confusion. He stressed the need for ability of pupils to read and to express themselves. Pupils should acquire while still in school the habit of reading history and of reading and analyzing papers—of reading widely on various sides of controversial subjects, of studying with discrimination, of expressing opinions.

Ernest Horn of the University of Iowa summarized the discussion. He noted the need for criteria by which to evaluate the proposals in the Bulletin, remarking that he had some lack of confidence in home-made—that is locally made—curricula. Any group of pupils ought to be entitled to advice from the best brains of the entire country, of those best informed and most able to protect pupils from errors and omissions.

Mr Horn agreed that attention to teaching which affects conduct is desirable—as, too, is attention to pupil needs, another frequently used criterion. But he was unwilling that instruction should be limited to areas of action; there are intellectual problems that need to be faced some time, and precise and expanding knowledge should not be belittled. If a program of training for democratic life is to be developed, wide cooperation is necessary to obtain some consensus concerning it.

Mr Horn commented on the general failure to face the crisis in instructional materials. There are still too many pupils with only a single text as reading material in any one year. Obviously far more is needed to meet the range of reading ability in any one grade, which is rarely less than five years, and often seven or eight, with added complication because often the ideas presented are too advanced even for pupils of good reading ability. In place of one text Mr Horn suggested three—one for, say, percentile 85, one for, say, percentile 65, and one for, say, percentile 15. At present he insisted, many pupils leave school never having had a book they could read. He did not favor

differentiated curricula in a society where all must act together and where all votes count equally. He advised strongly against putting in any curriculum unless needed instructional materials are available.

A session on Saturday morning continued the discussion of the Bulletin, with attention to possible "next steps." Edgar B. Wesley presented five possible forms of action for consideration: (1) encouraging the trial of perhaps twenty "experimental programs" following accepted curricula but so organized that choices would have to be made and that no school could adopt any program ready-made; (2) the collection and publication in a second bulletin of reports on extant programs; (3) reexamination by the National Council of the whole field of objectives and principles, with attention to the effect of teaching on conduct and to procedures; (4) individual and comparative evaluation of programs now in operation; and (5) doing nothing.

The discussion developed many differences of view, finally reconciled in large part by a proposal, to which the meeting gave its approval, to study the Bulletin and existing programs in the country, and to try to identify a small number of promising spots and then prepare units for them.

The dinner session Friday evening was largely attended. The brief remarks of Edgar B. Wesley, Nelle E. Bowman, and Howard R. Anderson were—to put it quickly—unique. Miss Bowman, asking no mercy and giving less, revealed talent as an after-dinner speaker that should force upon her a new and exciting career.

The largest audience of the session gathered Friday evening to hear the address by Judge Florence E. Allen, which is published in this issue. Following the address a reception was held in the attractive Little Theatre of the Municipal Auditorium. This innovation, made possible by the thoughtfulness of the local committee and the Kansas City Council for the Social Studies, with the generous cooperation of the teachers' association of Kansas City, provided welcome relaxation and opportunity to renew and extend acquaintances; the usual strain of an overcrowded Friday evening program was very pleasantly absent.

Three sectional meetings on Saturday morning considered the utilization of community resources. In the senior high school section S. P. McCutchen conducted a successful demonstration lesson on a controversial subject. A class from one of the high schools discussed Kansas City government before an audience of interested teachers. It is hoped that papers from the other sessions may presently appear in *Social Education*.

At the concluding luncheon session Saturday noon Francis T. Spaulding of Harvard University spoke on "High School Teachers and the Youth Problem." He reported that in response to a request to indicate which of their problems was most pressing, educators had named first the non-academic pupils, but had also named the deterioration of the character of youth traceable to government relief agencies—the CCC and the WPA, though this latter view was promptly challenged last winter at Cleveland. Another aspect of the relief program has, however, been causing increasing concern on the part of some educators—the possibility of a dual system of public education in the country.

The federal program has been developed independently of the local school system, but primarily as a relief program, with education as an incidental aspect. The locally controlled schools, preoccupied with other problems, have not asked aid in dealing with youth out of school and not working. Unless the need of this group is met locally, the CCC and NYA resident-center program may emerge as a system paralleling and in part duplicating the local system, a possibility that many educators contemplate with misgivings. Local communities must, however, in Mr Spaulding's opinion, deal with unemployed youth individually; no mass program will meet the need. Some effective work has already been done by interested educators and laymen. Nevertheless school people should take the lead in meeting the new demands.

Business sessions. The Board of Directors and several committees as usual put in long hours on the business of the Council. Some reports, including those of the Secretary-Treasurer and the Publications Committee, are printed in the Kansas City program.

Mr Wilson reported the largest membership in the Council's history. The Publications Committee announced that the 1940 Yearbook on economic education, edited by Harold F. Clark of Columbia University, is already in an advanced stage. The 1941 yearbook will probably be concerned with social studies in the elementary school. The Committee on Research, of which Ernest Horn is chairman, proposes to devote immediate attention to the development of our civil liberties.

Mr Roy A. Price, chairman of the new Committee on Public Relations, reported the successful establishment of a system of district and state chairmen; already interest in the National Council has been effectively stimulated in many states, and the committee has been able to assist many local and district groups in obtaining speakers. The list of chairmen was published in the November issue of *Social Education* and in the Kansas City program.

At the business meeting, where many reports were heard, notice was given of a proposed amendment to the Council's constitution which would establish the office of executive secretary. This would make possible the concentration of the work of several officers and committees, and should increase the Council's efficiency.

New Officers. The report of the nominating committee was accepted, and the following officers elected for 1940: Howard R. Anderson, Cornell University, president; Fremont P. Wirth, George Peabody College for Teachers, first vice-president; Ernest Horn, University of Iowa, second vice-president; Wilbur F. Murra, Harvard University, secretary-treasurer; elective members of the Board of Directors, I. James Quillen, Stanford University, and Ethel M. Ray, Terre Haute, Indiana.

1940 meeting. The 1940 meeting will be held in Syracuse, New York.

Mr Wilson's Retirement. The insistence of Howard E. Wilson on retiring from the secretary-treasureship after five years of service was much regretted. The remarkable growth of membership and the rapid expansion of the services and usefulness of the Council during recent years have been largely due to Mr Wilson's efforts and leadership.

The business meeting recorded its great appreciation of the work of the local committee

in Kansas City and of the efforts and generosity of others who made the convention an outstanding success.

E.M.H.

STATE AND LOCAL BULLETINS

The number of social studies councils that publish bulletins seems steadily to increase. Last month the new *Illinois Councilor* and the enlarged *Detroit Social Studies Bulletin* were noted, and attention given to the *Southern California Social Studies Review*. Three recent issues must be noted this month.

Kentucky: *The Council Courier*, now in its fourth volume, is edited by Howard W. Robey, Western Junior High School, Louisville. The 1939 issue includes news notes, a short article on an experiment in correlating social science and English, and bibliographical information on the war and international relations. A proposed social studies program is outlined by the chairman of the curriculum committee of the State Council, and some reading suggestions for teachers are provided.

Missouri: *The Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* now appears three times a year in printed form. It is now edited by Charles W. Merrifield of the John Burroughs School. The autumn issue includes, besides a message from the president, G. H. V. Melone, articles on "The Missouri Council and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association," by W. Francis English, and on "Trends in Visual Education," "Missouri at Work on the Public School Curriculum," "Radio and Social Education Today," and "The Summer Workshop Program of the Progressive Education Association." Announcements and news are of course also included.

Nebraska: *Nebraska Social Studies Bulletin*. The second volume, edited by a committee of which Eliza Gamble is chairman, opens with articles on "Objectives in the Teaching of History" by Florence Jenkins of the Lincoln High School, and on "An Illustration of Pupil Responsibility in Classroom Procedure" by Mildred Eddy of the Mason School, Omaha. A list of questions on five of the "Founding Fathers" is also included.

El Paso: *The Bulletin's* second volume began appearance in November. It includes much professional and personal news, and short accounts of the Golden Gate Exposition and London in war time. The editor is Grace

Long of the El Paso High School. The officers of the El Paso District Council are Mrs Laura Y. Warren, El Paso High School, president; Mrs Martha Praylor, Beall School, vice-president; Mrs Hazel Osborn, Austin High School, secretary; and Miss Minnie Blackmon, Austin High School, treasurer.

DALLAS

The Dallas District Council for the Social Studies is now entering its third year. The publication of bulletins containing articles written by representatives from the educational and professional groups of the city, begun last year, will be continued.

Dr Lolabel Hall of Bay Ridge High School, New York, was guest speaker on November 5, 1938, at a dinner lecture. She gave her observations on trends in the social studies during her thirty-five years of teaching in the New York City schools. Dr Anna Powell, professor of history at North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, was guest speaker on May 8, 1939. She discussed "Intellectual Cooperation Among American Nations."

In November Dr Howard R. Anderson of Cornell University was the speaker at a dinner lecture meeting. A luncheon will be held in March with the speaker yet to be selected.

The membership of the local organization is approximately seventy-five, of which thirty-eight belong to the National Council for the Social Studies.

M.R.

IN DEFENSE OF DEMOCRACY

The American Council on Public Affairs has published a 15-page pamphlet, "In Defense of Democracy," which draws on speeches by Frank Murphy, Attorney General of the United States. Mr Murphy deals with the need for defense against internal attack, with due attention to the Bill of Rights and attitudes of calmness and reason, with the need for strengthening our civil liberties, and with the role of government and of public spirited citizens in maintaining the Bill of Rights and civil liberties. Charles A. Beard contributes an introduction vigorously endorsing the Attorney General's position and bespeaking wide attention, in schools and out, to the views expressed.

The pamphlet is available at 1721 Eye Street, Washington, at 10 cents a copy.

CITIZENSHIP RECOGNITION DAY

The December issue of the *Journal* of the NEA gives attention in Joy Elmer Morgan's editorial and, in two articles, to the possibilities of further developing such a "citizenship recognition day" as has already been established in Manitowoc, Wisconsin. The Manitowoc innovation is described by the superintendent of schools, who is also chairman of the new NEA Committee on Induction into Citizenship. Mr Morgan suggests as a program for the committee:

"First, to develop in every state education association an active committee corresponding to and working with the NEA Committee. The movement already has some headway in Wisconsin, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Alabama.

"Second, to acquaint the teaching profession and citizens with the purposes and ideals of the movement thru articles such as those which appear in this issue of *The Journal*.

"Third, to secure in every state suitable laws providing for the establishment of Citizenship Recognition Day and setting up the machinery necessary to make the day effective.

"Fourth, the development of satisfactory practices in the preparation of prospective citizens for this important event in their lives. Mere perfunctory ceremonies will mean little unless fortified by substantial programs of civic education during the months and years preceding induction. Under this plan the active responsibility of the school for the civic education of all youth is extended up to age twenty-one.

"A fifth step requires the development of a body of popular, inexpensive printed material available at cost in large volume on a nation-wide scale. Here the Committee will be in a position to call upon the NEA, whose staff has proved what can be done thru its service to American Education Week."

COMMISSION FOR EDUCATION AND RESOURCES

A Commission for Education and Resources has been appointed jointly by the National Education Association and the Progressive Education Association. The Commission will seek to make available materials pertaining to conservation of resources which will be of value to educators.

Appointed by the National Education Association are: Howard Odum of the University of North Carolina, Ruth West, president of the National Council for the Social Studies, Ray Lyman Wilbur of Stanford University, and Willard E. Givens of the National Education Association. Appointed by the Progressive Education Association are: C. L. Cushman of the American Council on Education, Paul R. Hanna of Stanford University, Lewis Mumford, New York City, and Fred Redefor of the

Progressive Education Association. Three other members will be appointed.

RECONSIDERING THE IQ

The November special issue of *Educational Method* is concerned with "Intelligence in a Changing Universe." Paul Witty, special editor, contributed "Toward a Reconstruction of the Concept of Intelligence," summarizing the findings of recent experiments, including those of the Child Welfare Research Station at the University of Iowa. Florence L. Goode-nough questions some of these findings, and especially popular reports of them, in "Look to the Evidence: A Critique of Recent Experiments on Raising the I.Q." Other articles also have significance for social studies teachers.

CONSUMER EDUCATION

"Materials for Consumer Education: a Selected Bibliography" has been prepared for teachers and students by the Consumers' Counsel Division of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Washington. It lists and comments on federal agencies, courses of study, study guides, works on education about co-operatives, textbooks, visual materials, and titles on other phases of consumer education.

FILMS ON WAR

Films on War and American Neutrality, an annotated bibliography of twelve selected 16-mm. sound motion pictures dealing with backgrounds of the present war situation and American neutrality, has just been published by the Motion Picture Project of the American Council on Education. Suggestions for use of these films and lists of critical questions on the subject of each film are supplied in the bibliography to assist teachers in the intelligent use of these films. The bibliography is divided into three sections: events leading to the present European war, the war situation in the Orient, and the machinery of peace and neutrality.

Films on War and American Neutrality may be obtained from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C. It is mimeographed, contains forty-eight pages, and sells for twenty-five cents.

FILM ON HOUSING

"*Housing In Our Time*, a two-reel sound film, has just been released by the United

States Housing Authority. In announcing the film the U.S.H.A. says, "The ruthless eye of the camera roves over the land to dispel the comforting myth that the slum exists only in the big city. It explores the repulsive shacks of the small town as well as the dark alleys under the shadow of the Nation's Capitol. It finds in rural shelters no less misery than in the tenements of New York or in the miners' huts of Pittsburgh. . . .

"Local housing authorities will cooperate with the U. S. Housing Authority in distribution of the subject. If your city has a local housing authority make your request to that organization. If, however, your locality has no housing authority, write to the U. S. Housing Authority, Washington, D. C. Purchase prints will be available at approximately \$17.50 for 16-mm. and approximately \$35 for 35-mm. prints. Purchase inquiries should be directed to the Housing Authority in Washington" (*Educational Screen*, November, 1939).

"THEN CAME WAR, 1939"

A recording of speeches and statements made during the negotiations preceding the outbreak of war last September has been made available by the World Book Company. Elmer Davis has edited and provided introductions for three 12-inch records (six sides) requiring a total of about twenty-six minutes to play. The voices of Hitler, Chamberlain, Daladier, and Henderson are heard in excerpts from dramatic key statements. Mr Davis places the coming of the war in its historical setting and provides restrained and balanced transitions. Alexander J. Stoddard of the Educational Policies Commission has provided a "program-notes" leaflet. This effort to give students "The Sound of History" has very promising educational possibilities.

The price of the three records, complete with album and "Notes," is \$5.20. Address the World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson.

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest—for "Notes and News." Items for March should be sent in by February 1.

BOOK REVIEWS

American Social Problems: An Introduction to the Study of the People and Their Dilemmas.

By Howard W. Odum. New York: Holt, 1939. Pp. vii, 549. \$3.00.

Howard W. Odum's *American Social Problems* is not just another textbook in sociology. Its approach is original and its content is encyclopedic. These two characteristics make it outstanding in its field.

Its originality is striking in many respects. The author has employed with great effect the Erskine Caldwell pictorial device with brief captions to drive home his points. To this he has added full-page statistical pictures with great success. Charts of state government expenditures and the prospective population in 1940 vie with a sample catalogue of Americanisms and a national roster of sports for the interest of the reader.

The book's originality goes deeper, however, than the technique of presenting facts. Odum has divided his text into two parts, the first concerned with "The American Picture" and the second with "The Study and Teaching of Social Problems." In the first he presents a comprehensive survey of the contemporary social scene under the classifications of our national and cultural heritage, our people, our institutions, and the testing grounds for the people. In the second he presents a realistic framework of inquiry for delving into a study of solutions to the dilemmas of the American people. This approach asks what the facts are, what they mean, their relation to other facts and the total situation under discussion, the results if a proposed policy were pursued, the alternatives, the next steps, and finally, the best ways to proceed.

The amount of material packed into his 500 pages is astounding. For example, a single "statistical picture" summarizes the recent

series of radio programs, Americans All—Immigrants All, in one page. The bibliographies are likewise rare veins of information for the prospector in search of answers to perplexing problems.

The book suffers in two respects. Its arrangement divides the presentation of a problem and the inquiry into its solution into two parts, widely separated. As a teaching technique, one is not likely to present all the problems and then start solving them one by one. Even though the author explains this arrangement by his desire to present a framework of inquiry, it does not seem satisfying to the classroom teacher. At times the reader is overwhelmed by the amount of data even while rejoicing over the wealth of material available.

These two faults, however, do not mar a genuinely original volume which should appeal particularly to college instructors as a textbook well worth considering for use, and to high school teachers as a ready reference particularly for problems courses or the problems approach to the teaching of social studies.

LEONARD S. KENWORTHY

Friends' Central School
Overbrook, Pennsylvania

Bryce's "American Commonwealth": Fiftieth Anniversary. Edited by Robert C. Brooks. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xii, 245. \$2.50.

Fifty years ago, an inquiring Britisher set down his impressions of American government and politics in a work which remains the most comprehensive study yet undertaken of our political institutions and habits. Bryce's *American Commonwealth* was an essay in interpretation, reminiscent of Tocqueville but narrower in scope and so more intensive in treatment. Here, Bryce is himself interpreted,

fifty years after, as a man, as a student and reporter, and as an analyst and prophet.

Five essays in this volume deal with the author's views on *The American Commonwealth*—constitutional federalism, state and local government, parties and politics, the future of democracy. Written by outstanding American students of these questions today, they throw into high relief the changes wrought during the past fifty years. The new technological environment and the changed social order which could only be glimpsed when Bryce observed and wrote, have fundamentally altered the political mores of the nation. Structural changes have been more implicit than explicit; we have developed "customs of the constitution" rather than outward revisions to meet the practical exigencies of governance in a great society. And yet, as the various authors point time and again, Bryce's insights etched shrewd forecasts of the main trends in our politics which, half a century later, remain remarkably fresh and accurate.

Two contemporary reviews of Bryce's book, by Lord Acton and Woodrow Wilson, are included. Two essays deal respectively with other contemporary opinions here and abroad, and with the man. There is much valuable history of American government and politics in these papers, and much incisive comment on the contemporary scene as well. It is a book as stimulating as it is timely.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

Queens College
New York City

The Administrative Process. By James M. Landis. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1938. Pp. 160. \$2.00.

In the Yale Storrs lectures Dean Landis of the Harvard Law School combines his broad knowledge of law and society with first-hand knowledge gained on the Federal Trade Commission, and as chairman of the Securities and Exchange Commission.

The administrative process, as here defined, consists of the legislative, executive, and judicial functions performed by the independent boards and commissions. It is not viewed, as by some authorities on administration, as an extension of the executive process. These tribunals fall into two classes: those concerned with specific industries such as the railroads (e.g., ICC), and those with specific problems

pertaining to industry as a whole (e.g., NLRB). The emphasis of the former is on positive promotion, and the latter on policing.

Partly in this manner a democratic society has attempted to meet the demands of an inter-related society; the depression accelerated but did not originate the process. Since the problems of certain tribunals are similar to those of a given industry, it is but natural that their organizations should likewise correspond. Speaking generally, this process owes its development to certain fundamental weaknesses in our legislative and judicial organs, and to the need for coordination, specialization, and consistency, all of which can best be served in this manner. Dean Landis is well aware of the fetish of the separation of powers, and in some manner, not quite clear, he believes that the administrative process may preserve the separation.

In the delegation of legislative power we lack both administratively realistic and judicially acceptable formulas. In the former instances the legislatures sometimes fail in definiteness because they wish to avoid responsibility; at other times they limit tribunals to such an extent that they are stymied in the attempt to achieve a desired result.

This process presents many problems and some dangers, but many of these can be solved and removed with time. A tradition similar to that which respects the independence of the judiciary, for example, may eventually develop where administrative tribunals are concerned. While reasons for the retention of the independence of the administrative tribunals are advanced, the problems of independence are recognized but no solutions suggested.

The illustrations drawn from first-hand experience are both interesting and revealing. Those who have been concerned with the growth of the "new despotism" should spend two or three hours with this book. The time will be interestingly employed.

CHARLES P. SCHLEICHER

University of Utah

The Pressure Boys: The Inside Story of Lobbying in America. By Kenneth G. Crawford. New York: Messner, 1939. Pp. xi, 308. \$3.00.

The Pressure Boys is a popular, often sensational, always entertaining, and largely un-

documented exposé of the Washington lobbyists. Much of the material can be verified; much comes from the author's personal and vicarious experience in the national capital as a newspaper correspondent. Fantastic as some of the stories may seem, what is recorded in sober congressional investigations gives verisimilitude to the author's own observations. It would have been useful, no doubt, to have chapter and verse available for every statement. But, where the game is played without rules or records, it is no disparagement of the account here set down that every statement can not be authenticated from the books. A grain of salt is perhaps a necessary savor to so lively a dish of anecdote, analysis, and antiseptic.

The author's hypothesis is that "property has not hesitated to corrupt government, when necessary, to preserve its precious advantages and to extend them. . . . Subterranean forces, whose direction cannot be charted on a day-to-day basis, make and break legislation and legislators." From this hypothesis he sets out to trace as much of the course as he had had opportunity to observe at first hand or to glean from those around him. Whether one agrees or not, the account he gives of contemporary lobbying in Washington can not be overlooked by anyone who wishes to understand how our government is actually conducted.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

Queens College
New York City

Lester F. Ward: The American Aristotle. By Samuel Chugerman. Durham, North Carolina: Duke Univ. Press, 1939. Pp. 591. \$5.00.

Until I saw this book I knew almost nothing of Ward. This note is to caution others to avoid the shame I felt. To read the book through is a heavy chore, but it is so constructed that one may dip into it with much profit. The hope is awakened that another and a smaller and more popular edition will follow it. It seems to be unfortunate that one of our greatest scholars should be so little known not only to humbler folk like me, but also to others whom I have innocently asked about him since I saw the book.

Youngest of a pioneer family of twelve, living in direst poverty, a soldier in the Civil War, a hard-working civil servant most of his life, starting only at age 26 to attend evening

classes, he mastered many languages for practical use, corresponded with European scholars and winning their high esteem, he was late in life invited to his first academic opportunity, a professorship in Brown University.

He was a dynamic sociologist, both words being used in their essential meaning. He studied society for the purpose of finding out how it could be improved. Like Aristotle, he was in search of a better life. In his *The Teaching of History* (p. 78) Henry Johnson asks "If history in tracing social development can make clear the nature of social progress, may not progress be taken in hand consciously and consciously assisted?"

He studied geology, anthropology, biology, psychology, seeking everywhere for an explanation of man in society. Why does he behave as he does? Why does he bog down just as he has become master of the forces of physical nature? Inspired by a hope that is almost unbelievable, he worked ceaselessly, collecting and clarifying information bearing on the character of man in society. He was never crushed, as some learned men seem to be, by the weight of his knowledge. He held that the intellect is merely a helmsman steering the ship. If there is no emotion to drive it, there is no headway. He was a hard-thinking social evolutionist, not seeming to be tempted toward any revolutionary cult, doubtless knowing that violent or even hasty revolution generally results in reaction. Much of his philosophy is a good deal too far ahead for practical use today; but that is true of all who have led in social progress.

EDGAR DAWSON

Hunter College
New York City

We Who Build America: The Saga of the Immigrant. By Carl Wittke. New York: Prentice Hall, 1939. Pp. xviii, 547. \$5.00 trade, \$3.75 school.

The problem of minorities is still a major one in this country. The existence of our Bund as well as of other subversive minority movements testifies to the fact that a number of our naturalized citizens, and particularly their descendants, have not been assimilated culturally, although most of them claim political rights and privileges granted by our constitutional system. At any rate, it is obvious that our population is a problem as yet unsolved.

It is also a very important educational problem, confronting us in the form of the so-called "marginal cultures." Here we have reference to the second generation, brought up under the influence of the foreign customs and traditions of their families, and also of the "American" culture. Fortunately, we have a substantial theory of cultural pluralism to offer us a solution to this problem. Briefly, it is an attempt to bridge the differences between the old world cultures and the marginal cultures in relation to the dominant American culture. The most effective way of starting this process is to understand thoroughly the proper place of various immigrant groups in American history. Much has been done in this respect by many local historians and particularly by the descendants of immigrant groups seeking to glorify their own backgrounds. But, we have very few single studies which would integrate the available knowledge of our history of immigration.

Wittke's work will go a long way in making us understand the whole history of immigration in its broadest political, economic, and cultural implications. The author has undertaken a task which is in his own words, "enormous, fascinating, and forbidding." He has succeeded, however, in uncovering hundreds of local studies and references to the generally unknown materials. In this respect, I can think of no other work which has done such a valuable task in synthesizing for us much of the little known sources.

Dean Wittke has tried to confine himself to a historical rather than a sociological treatment of the subject. It is only fair to admit that he is at his best when he uses a historical approach. Sociologically speaking, his treatment suffers from over simplification of certain sections and particularly from the lack of inclusion of the latest sociological material on certain nationalities. It is true that many of the post-war sociological studies are cited here, but the picture of the immigrant groups so kaleidoscopic and changing so fast that their conclusions can be used only historically and not in the contemporary sense. We can not, however, condemn him for this tendency to make the story of several nationalities appear occasionally out of the present-day focus. The book will be found really very useful by all those who are interested in the so-called

"new" history and in making the saga of the immigrant alive to their students.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

Hofstra College
Hempstead, New York

Political Thought: The European Tradition.

By J. P. Mayer and others. New York: Viking, 1939. Pp. xxviii, 485. \$4.00.

In times of crises such as the present men are prompted either to build programs for the future or to look back in order to discover what factors have produced the crises and what common ideas and ideals have persisted and must persist. The first of these alternatives has been and will continue to be the source of Utopias, past and present; the second has resulted in the present book in which J. P. Mayer and his collaborators—E. Kohn Brahmstedt, R. H. S. Crossman, P. Kecksmeti, and C. J. S. Spriggs—have sought to make a "scientific, historical reappraisal—at a moment of crisis—of the main decisive ideas upon which European political doctrines are founded." The plan of the book was "to present a sketch of the enduring forms of European political consciousness as they shaped themselves in the course of historical and social development from the days of Greek classical antiquity." The book falls into two parts: in the first the facts are grouped in accordance with historical periods up to the end of the seventeenth century; in the second part the contribution made by each European nation and by the United States to political consciousness of the west is discussed.

In the large volume of re-evaluations of political thought which has been produced within the last decade, the present book will stand out merely for the wealth of scholarship but for the freshness of the point of view which Mr Mayer and his associates have brought to a subject on which so much has already been written. What distinguishes this book in particular is the fact that political thought has not been divorced from the setting which produced it. Hence the social and economic factors have been dealt with as the determinants of political theory. At the same time the gradually emerging national characteristics which have also played their part in the interpretation of all these forces are not ignored. Here, if anywhere, is emphasized the danger of the too facile use of political labels.

The survey of the European tradition through the classical periods of Greece and Rome, through the middle ages, the Renaissance and the seventeenth century, and then onwards in the political thought of Britain, France, Germany, Italy, the United States, and Russia leads Mr Mayer to find the basic elements of the inheritance, which has stood the test of two thousand years in "freedom of thought and doctrine; the dignity of the individual; a human responsibility to society and the State." There is, however, one other element which is adequately discussed but not included in this summary, and that is an urge for world unity which found expression in Stoic philosophy, in the Catholic Church, in the search for international order in the seventeenth century, and in the period during and after the last war. With this age-old aspiration why has man failed? Because, answers Mr Mayer, technology has been made an end in itself and it has been forgotten that "man alone is the end of man." When technology becomes an end in itself, "rationalism loses its responsibility, becomes irrationalism, and is opposed to the whole meaning of western existence." And yet "this ethos of reason is the common European inheritance. *Our task is to hand it down to the generations to come, even if we should have to defend it on the field of battle.*"

Political Thought: The European Tradition is a book which should be in the hands of every teacher of history and the social sciences, if only as a protection against the current tendency to look upon the contemporary as the permanent and against the danger of ignoring the permanent values in man's struggle to emerge to a life of reason.

I. L. KANDEL

Teachers College
Columbia University

No Compromise: The Conflict Between Two Worlds. By Melvin Rader. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. 403. \$3.50.

Of Human Freedom. By Jacques Barzun. Boston: Little Brown, 1939. Pp. 334. \$2.50.

Even casual conversation with students, not to mention their parents, reveals the astonishing fact that they can offer no intelligent defense of democratic ideals. It is high time that this ignorance was overcome; otherwise young

people confronting the present cultural crisis without the conscious understanding of traditional American ideals, may be open to persuasion by the same kind of absolutists who have subjugated the Germans and the Italians. The appearance of these two books attest to the growing concern with the danger. Because they uphold the democratic way of life, they should be read by both teachers and pupils. They suit admirably the needs of a variety of courses, and Barzun's book might serve as text for an orientation course in the ideological structure of democratic culture. Both books are sincerely critical about basic things, and are written clearly and simply and with nice balance of generalization and detail. Both contain many succinct statements, especially Barzun's work, and both are models of exposition. They supplement each other admirably.

Mr Rader, a philosopher, emphasizes the refutation of fascist ideas. (He includes in "fascism" the Italian and the German forms and any found elsewhere.) He starts with the thesis, taken from an assertion by Mussolini, that "the struggle between two worlds [Democracy and Fascism] can permit no compromise." After searching out the fascist assumptions and dogmas, he proceeds to criticize each in turn, adding just enough detail about fascist practice of these dogmas to drive home the reality of his thesis. Some of his best passages are those in which he coolly applies the methods of logical analysis to this muddled metaphorical thinking and these unclear concepts. The results are highly edifying. I know of no other work in which point for point fascist theory is confronted with democratic tenets. This precise juxtaposing of one view against the other gives the reader of Rader's book a profound sense of the truth of Mussolini's statement: there can be "no compromise" between these two ways of life.

The main interest of Jacques Barzun's book lies in the positive statement of the nature of democratic culture. The author criticizes the opponents of this culture only in so far as is germane to his purpose. He regards democracy not merely as a political form but as a total culture, a way of doing things which affects the whole of life. He contrasts it, based upon the "relativist, instrumental philosophy" of Pragmatism, with all forms of absolutism, whether fascist or Marxian or otherwise, enumerating

the qualities of the latter as "the mechanical, the formulated, the materialistic, the dry, the rigid." Students interested in both Humanities and social sciences and the borderline disciplines like psychology can read his book with profit. The author maintains that human freedom arose "from the normal working of the mind in grappling with a problem" and his discussion, for example, of the democratic nature of the scientific method and of aesthetic creativeness is as illuminating as his remarks on politics and the state. I know of no single work in which one can find gathered together such many-sided wisdom about democratic culture. This is the kind of book which every teacher, in fact every intellectual, should read in order to test his learning, not of facts but of the principles that constitute his *Weltanschauung*. Here is the knowledge that grows out of varied reading and from long conversations with congenial friends. The footnotes in this book attest to Barzun's wide appreciations, and the author's expression of gratitude to a number of friends (the names are significant) reveals the fact that this book in part grew out of one of the most alive and stimulating groups in the country, perhaps in the present-day world. This remark is not meant to detract from Barzun's own achievement; he deserves his friends.

Each book has a few defects which may be pointed out. Rader's knowledge of the history of nationalist thought in the nineteenth century does not seem very deep, and the necessity of condensation led him into slight unfairness not merely to these early nationalists but to many present-day fascists. He occasionally assures the reader that the fascists have some good qualities, but does not elucidate them. Although he recognizes the close relation between the condition of crisis and the rise of fascism, his attitude is not that of the understanding historian but that of the philosopher interested in ultimate evaluations. In the case of Barzun, the cultural approach and the use of two intellectual disciplines, "the historical method and pragmatic empiricism," allow a more inclusive view of the problem, but not everyone will approve the author's Pragmatism. Moreover, while the philosopher may accept the author's assertion, for example, that "coercion achieves nothing but . . . coercion," the historian may not agree. One is back at the

old controversy between idealism and realism, even though the ideal is that of a method and an attitude. I sympathize with Barzun's search for some abiding standards, but I have the impression that he is not altogether faithful to his own democratic ultimates when he declares that, "Good government like happiness, requires no definition: it is whatever the petitioner desires." One last question: How did Barzun's fine aesthetic sense ever approve the prefatory quotation from Byron?

EUGENE N. ANDERSON

American University
Washington, D. C.

Fascist Italy. By William Ebenstein. New York: American Book, 1939. Pp. x, 310. \$2.50.

This is a book *à thèse*. The thesis to be proved is that Fascism has brought political, social, economic, and diplomatic misery to the Italian people. The task is accomplished, so far as social and economic conditions are concerned, by showing (1) that there is a gulf between the performance and promise of Fascist leaders—leaders who are perpetually in an expensive mood; (2) that many of the achievements of the Fascists were begun before the advent of Fascism; and (3) that the lower classes have been victimized by capitalists who pull the strings of black-shirted puppets.

Some persons—particularly those who want to be convinced—may be impressed by such methods, but not so your reviewer. He believes that a better case can be made against the devil by giving that gentleman his due than by damning him from top to toe. Why not recognize that Italy is a very poor country, that it has been through a world depression with the rest of us, and that it is tied to the nationalist-capitalist system with all which that implies? Then the picture becomes more realistic. The Fascist campaign for a larger population, the deflationary measures of 1926-1927, the spending of millions for armaments, and the "war economy" of the period since 1935 seem doubly mistaken. But they also become understandable, as does the corporate system with its attempted control of capital and labor and its "planned economy."

There is no question but what a case can be made against many Fascist policies, but exaggerations do not engender confidence in an argument. Thus Mr Ebenstein states that

"there is good evidence that wages . . . in the form in which they are paid out in Fascist Italy do not even suffice to buy the most essential food, let alone clothing and other necessities" (p. 184). The impression one gets from such a statement is that Italians are dying *en masse* from starvation and that they are running naked through the streets. Why criticize the Fascists for not building low-cost dwellings, and then condemn the land reclamation schemes because some of them are near Rome for foreign visitors to see and all of them have been expensive?

Unsatisfactory as the social and economic chapters of this book are, the sections on the press, religion and the state, education, and law and justice may be read with profit as a balance to pro-Fascist accounts. Moreover, the chapters on Italy's foreign policy since 1922 provide a synthesis which is not easily accessible. The bibliography is short and omits Herbert W. Schneider's *Fascist Government of Italy*, Gaudens Megaro's excellent study of Mussolini's early life, and the most convincing of anti-Fascist works—the studies of Rosenstock-Franck.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

Youth in European Labor Camps. By Kenneth Holland. Washington: American Council on Education, 1939. Pp. xiii, 303. \$2.50.

We teachers are apt to pay too little attention to attempts at solving the problems which today confront millions of young people for whom the schools are no longer responsible. The Civilian Conservation Corps became a vital part of the educational and vocational program of the United States in 1937, when Congress provided for a three-year extension of the project. Since that time numerous proposals for a permanent labor camp organization have been suggested.

Most of us would agree that some sort of work camp experience for our unemployed youth is desirable, but the question is, what kind of camps can best meet their needs? In the hope that we might profitably learn from experiences with labor camps in other countries Kenneth Holland reports on camp projects in Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Germany (before and after Hitler), England, Wales, Switzerland, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Holland, Bul-

garia, and Poland. The author spent the better part of seven years visiting and working in European labor camps and the book is largely based on his experience supplemented by some official data.

Labor camps in democratic countries tend to be categorized as emergency measures, but authoritarian states consider them a permanent and vitally important part of the government program. Camp service is compulsory for all young men and some young women in Bulgaria and Nazi Germany, and nationalistic propaganda forms the basis of the educational program. The camps are essentially military in character. In general the personnel in authoritarian camps seems more efficient than that of camps in democratic countries where "positions on camp staffs are often looked upon as stop-gaps for the unemployed, to be abandoned as soon as more permanent jobs are available elsewhere" (p. 298).

It has been pretty generally conceded that the actual work done by camp youth could be accomplished with more economy by contract labor. But why seek justification for the camps on the sole basis of the work performed? Much more important is their contribution to the preparation of youthful citizens for the life to be led after camp.

If labor camps in the United States are to be established on a permanent basis, Mr Holland proposes that they should be carefully integrated with the educational, vocational, employment, and adjustment activities of established training and educational institutions.

Adequate bibliographies are appended to each of the fourteen chapters. The entire volume is well illustrated.

FRANCES S. BROWNLEE

This Modern Age: An Introduction to the Understanding of Our Own Times. By F. C. Happold. London: Christophers, 1938. Pp. xvi, 319.

In Great Britain as in the United States there is much anxious and controversial discussion about reconstructing the school curriculum and especially the social science courses so as better to prepare young citizens in an era of revolutionary change to aid more intelligently in reshaping their world. Some English schools have already prepared "Social Studies" syllabi

that seek to combine history, geography, economics, and other fields in one unified course. In the absence of a suitable brief textbook, Mr Happold "has collected for the first time in convenient form the essential material needed for a complete Social Studies course." The author of this difficult undertaking, formerly history master at the Perse School in Cambridge and lecturer in the University of Cambridge, is now headmaster of Bishop Wordsworth's School, Salisbury. He is author of *The Adventure of Man*, a brief history of the world for young people (published in the United States in 1926), and of *Citizens in the Making*, in which he attacked an "over-academic curriculum" and urged extensive reconstruction. During five years of experimental work in his own school he has developed a unified course for the social sciences that includes also a good deal of material for the study of English.

This Modern Age, based on experimental work and on the author's varied experience as teacher and administrator, prepared "for ordinary men and women" and for "boys and girls," attempts to provide a background for the citizen wishing to help in the "reshaping

of this new world." It is offered to schools as the basis for a social studies course of one or two years in middle school forms for youngsters of thirteen to fifteen years of age, although supplementary work in geography and history is recommended; or, it may be used "as a basic textbook round which, over a period of two or three years, a history-geography-economics-civics syllabus can be built up." Part I, "The Working Organization of the Modern World," is devoted to the economic organization and how it works; Part II, to "Law and Order: the Practice of Government"; Part III is entitled "Then and Now: the Background and History of Our Times"; and Part IV, "Things That Influence Our Lives." There is much use of history in the sections on economics and government, while Part III, devoted to world history, makes a point of combining history, geography, and economics to explain current events. Part IV "breaks entirely new ground," the publishers assert, in giving several chapters to radio and cinema, the press, planning a more beautiful England, and the need of clear thinking.

The author seeks, with considerable success, to be objective and unprejudiced, pointing out

Now
Ready

Smith—

YOUR PERSONAL ECONOMICS

Smith—

ECONOMICS Revised Edition

Wallis and Wallis—

OUR SOCIAL WORLD

REVISED
EDITION

Young and Wright—

UNIFIED AMERICAN GOVERNMENT

Revised

Myers, Little and Robinson—

PLANNING YOUR FUTURE

REVISED
EDITION

Write for
Further
Information

McGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY, Inc.

330 West 42nd Street

New York

that the totalitarian governments are the product of something more than wickedness, individual or national, and that our economic and social order does have serious faults whether or not the proposals of socialism and communism offer the best remedies. Perhaps he sometimes leans backward, as in his account of Hitler's dealings with Austria and Czechoslovakia (pp. 259-60). The viewpoint and focus are, however, markedly British. More than fifty maps, charts, and diagrams, often pictorial, usually clear and simple though at times a bit sketchy, are a valuable feature. A brief bibliography includes only British publications.

The treatment of economics and economic history in 80 pages, of world history in 115 pages, and of the whole social studies course in 308 pages of text and illustrations is necessarily very summary, though in accord with the English practice of making school textbooks very short. (Mr Happold's own history of the world for young people, for example, has but 230 pages of text and illustrations.) The generalized statements and abstractions so characteristic of textbooks in general are inevitably very common in this volume. But they are often richly suggestive, frequently the author supplements them with concrete examples that give them meaning for the young reader, and the vocabulary and sentence structure are simple. Yet when he has "galloped along" as the author himself puts it (p. 159) the results are too often unfortunate. One of them is statements that are essentially inaccurate or at least misleading by overcompression, e.g., the account of how an American president is chosen (p. 139), or that concerning the operation of the French cabinet system (p. 140), or about American constitutions (p. 85).

While Mr Happold's book is too fully adapted to British schools to serve American classes except as supplementary material, it is of real interest for the American teacher not only as a concrete example of how the English are attacking a difficult educational problem but for its ingenious and able treatment in very brief compass of a whole group of difficult topics and the integration of a number of subject fields.

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL

Teachers College
Columbia University

Local Broadcasts to Schools. Edited by Irvin Stewart. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. vii, 239. \$2.00.

"This volume is intended primarily for the approximately four hundred and ninety cities in the United States in which broadcast stations are located, although it is hoped that administrators and teachers in other cities may find in it material of interest. It is concerned solely with broadcasts to schools. . . . Its purpose is to give the school administrator in any community which has a broadcast station information designed to help him in the preparation and use of programs built for the local schools." The editor of *Local Broadcasts to Schools*, who is the Director of the Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning, has gathered data from a group of six representative cities engaged in school-broadcasting activities—Detroit, Cleveland, Rochester, Akron, Alameda, and Portland, Oregon. In each case the work being done in the field of radio education is discussed by a writer connected with the school system involved. Dr Stewart places before his readers the experience of these cities.

In such a symposium the reader's interest is inevitably attracted to comparisons between the various radio experiments, in order to ascertain the results of a number of years of work. From such a comparison emerges a picture of an important sector of radio education as it is in America today, a picture with challenging implications. The challenge results to some extent from the fact that there is a stimulating variety of opinion among the writers reporting on experience in their cities. Detroit favors, for example, extended reviewing of scripts by members of the radio staff and numerous other persons involved, while Alameda and Akron fear that loss of spontaneity may result from too much revision of a script. Pupil participation in school broadcasts, the use of the master-teacher technique, classroom activity during reception of a program—all these are matters which must be considered by those in charge of local school broadcasts against the background of the school situation in any given case. Experience extending over a number of years in widely varying environments is here made available, to allow the reader to extract from it such generalizations as may apply to the problem with which he may be concerned.

Difference of opinion concerning such a variety of moot points in school broadcasting not only serves to underscore the many questions upon which there is agreement among the writers who report on their cities in this volume. It serves, as well, to remind those interested in the field of radio education, one in which pioneering work of importance is being done in widely-separated sections, that exchange of experiences is all too infrequent. Among the functions of a director of radio activities, Mr Paul C. Reed here includes one which deserves emphasis: "to understand the objectives and achievements of the Rochester School of the Air so that experiences may be shared with others and to keep informed of national trends and developments so that Rochester's use of radio may be continually improved and its future assured." The pioneer work in disseminating such information done by the Ohio State University *News Letter* and other publications is now coming to be supplemented by books such as Dr Stewart's and the recent collection of school radio scripts and bulletins compiled by Miss Blanche Young, director of radio work in the Indianapolis schools, as well as by conferences on school use

of radio held, for example, in Chicago, Atlanta, and Los Angeles.

The various regions of America are singularly unaware of what is happening in other sections. Especially has this been true in the field of education by radio, where problems already dealt with in one section may cause difficulty elsewhere. Exchange of experiences in this field is vital if needless duplication of effort is to be avoided in the future. American radio education needs to learn about itself. This able study of the work of six cities in meeting similar problems may well point up the demand for a medium for the continual sharing of experiences among those interested in using radio as a teaching device. If such be the case, the editor has served American educational radio doubly well.

DONALD L. CHERRY

Sequoia Union High School
Redwood City, California

The Activity Concept: An Interpretation. By Lois Coffey Mossman. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. xvii, 197. \$1.50.

This is a scholarly essay on the underlying principles of activity, especially as they apply

★★ UNIT STUDIES IN AMERICAN PROBLEMS ★★

This new material for the social-studies class is brought out under the direction of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. It presents a faithful picture of the operation of certain phases of American government by offering realistic, unprejudiced material, backed by adequate references.

Why Taxes?

By Edward A. Krug. This pamphlet covers all the various taxing units—national, state, city or town, school district, and special districts.

Civil Service

By Chester C. Carrothers. This pamphlet presents information from many sources on the fundamental facts of our civil service as it is today, its problems, and its progress.

Each pamphlet \$0.48. Accompanying Tests \$0.32.
Prices subject to discount

GINN AND COMPANY

Boston New York Chicago Atlanta Dallas Columbus San Francisco

★★

to teaching in the elementary school. The book opens with a practical analysis of how a teacher should plan for the first days of school. The place of activity in learning is clearly stated and ably defended, notably in the third chapter, which deals with "Living, Learning, and Becoming."

Especially helpful to social studies teachers are the practical discussions on how to teach concepts of space and time, the analysis on pages 54-57 of the types of activity a school should and should not sponsor, and the listing of seventy-six specific activities which can be used in most classes. The reviewer is of the opinion that more frequent use of specific illustration would have increased the utility of the book. Less specific but equally useful are the two extensive discussions of the manner in which children develop selfhood through group life, and the philosophy of teaching as guidance and leadership.

The last two chapters of the book consist largely of citation from what the great educators have thought concerning activity and the emerging self. Dr Mossman weaves her threads skilfully, binding the past to the present in an unbroken sequence of development, so that modern methods appear to be merely restatements of older ideas. These two sections will be particularly helpful for teachers of education, but their frequently involved analysis will prove to be of little practical use to the teacher in the field.

The volume has an introduction by William H. Kilpatrick which summarizes in a few deft paragraphs the sequence of influences that led to the rise of activity. An appendix contains a chronological development of points of view and practices pertaining to activity including fifty-five dates from Vittorino da Feltre's advocacy of following nature's lead to the publication of Ellsworth Collings' *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*. The bibliography is brief and unannotated and the index is adequate. To summarize, the book can be used profitably by students in education classes, by administrators who are concerned with the infrequent use of creative activity by their colleagues, and by college teachers of education who wish to see the activity movement in its proper perspective. The latter should recognize, however, that they will have to supplement Dr Mossman's frequently abstract treat-

ment with numerous concrete examples of activity as it is administered in the classroom.

JAMES A. MICHENER

Harvard University

The Failing Student: A Study of Academic Failure and the Implication for Education. By Kenneth L. Heaton, and Vivian Weedon. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1939. Pp. x, 286. \$2.50.

This volume reports one of a series of studies made under the supervision of the Co-operative Bureau for Educational Research as an aid to institutional improvement in Michigan colleges. The subjects of the study were students in four Michigan colleges, but the findings and conclusions are suggestive for other colleges and for many secondary schools as well.

This study points out clearly some things that have been generally suspected to be true for a long time, particularly that academic success is conditioned by a far greater number of factors than mental ability and industry. The failing student is not a type; some students fail for one reason, some for others, and some for a combination of reasons. Some of the more influential factors that were investigated are indicated by the following chapter headings, among others: "Relationship of Psychological Test Scores to Academic Success"; "Reading Ability and Its Significance Among Failing Students"; "Study Habits and Skills"; "Vocational Motivation"; "Physical Health"; "The Importance of Personal and Social Factors."

One of the particularly telling chapters of the book is the one on "College Experiences as Appraised by Students." While this chapter does not attempt to make statistical analyses or to correlate the students' appraisals with other data, anyone who knows students, either college or high school students, can draw some fairly valid conclusions. In general, abstractness, remoteness from real life problems, needs and interests, uninspired and uninspiring teachers and lack of personal contact stand out as major shortcomings in the minds of students. Can one doubt that such considerations are at least as powerful as vocational considerations in motivating study? One may reasonably suspect that if the institutional program dealt more closely and naturally with life as students live it and see it, certain of the factors treated more scientifically in this book would have

quite a different significance. It is rather disappointing, at least to this reviewer, that the recommendations point largely to remedial and corrective procedures within the framework of the conventional course and credit scheme of things, although the authors do suggest, albeit rather cautiously, that perhaps the satisfying of the student's personal needs for guidance and orientation might well be considered a basic curriculum objective.

This report is a distinct contribution to educational literature in its field. It should prove most thought provoking to instructors who have perhaps forgotten that their main responsibility is to guide the growth and development of their students. It should also prove suggestive as to scope and methodology to other administrative or personnel officers who wish to improve the institutional program in their own institutions.

W. B. FEATHERSTONE

Teachers College
Columbia University

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Agricultural Adjustment Administration, Consumers' Counsel Division. *Materials for Consumer Education: A Selected Bibliography*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. 21.

Boodin, John Eloy. *The Social Mind: Foundations of Social Philosophy*. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xi, 593. \$3.50.

Clapp, Elsie Ripley. *Community Schools in Action*. New York: Viking, 1939. Pp. xviii, 429. \$3.75.

Dean, Vera Micheles. *Why Europe Went to War*. New York: Foreign Policy Association in cooperation with National Peace Conference, 1939. Pp. 48. 25c.

Education for Democracy: The Proceedings of the Congress on Education for Democracy held at Teachers College, Columbia University, August 15, 16, 17, 1939. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. xii, 466. \$2.50.

Frederic, Katherine A., and Cocking, Walter D. *State Personnel Administration: With Special Reference to Departments of Education*. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. xiv, 271. 35c.

Fry, Varian. *The Peace that Failed: How Europe Sowed the Seeds of War*. Headline Books. New York: Silver Burdett, 1939. Pp. 96. 25c.

Geography for To-day. Book IV, *Europe and the British Isles*. London and New York: Longmans Green, 1939. Pp. xii, 404. \$1.60.

Hockett, Homer Carey. *The Constitutional History of the United States, 1826-1876: A More Perfect Union*. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. xii, 405. \$3.00.

Howell, Charles E., and Meadows, Paul. *Students' Manual for Introductory Sociology*. New York: American Book, 1939. Pp. vi, 121. \$1.00.

Hunt, Rolfe Lanier. *A Study of Factors Influencing the Public-School Curriculum of Kentucky*. Nashville: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1939. Pp. 231.

Institute of International Education. Twentieth Annual Report of the Director. New York: Institute, 1939. Pp. 38.

A Book for Every Teacher . . .

EDUCATION FOR DEMOCRACY

*The Proceedings of the Congress on Education
for Democracy Held at Teachers College*

What is democracy? What part do various social forces play in achieving democracy? How can we best educate our people for life in a democratic state? These and other significant questions are discussed by outstanding leaders in *Education for Democracy*.

The Congress on Education for Democracy brought together educators and representatives of twenty-eight national lay organizations. Farmers, bankers, lawyers, teachers, labor leaders, manufacturers, and delegates from other groups considered the issues involved in training for democracy. Their judgments form an illuminating cross-section of current opinion.

The volume contains the addresses made at the Congress by thirty-four educators and laymen on the following themes: Democracy and Its Challenge, Democracy in Other Lands, Democracy at Work, and Democracy Moves Forward. Of special interest are the reports of the chairmen of the sixteen seminars on critical issues.

Every teacher faces the responsibility of intelligent civic participation, as well as that of wise leadership in the classroom. This stimulating, readable book is invaluable as orientation for the study of the crucial issues facing us today.

480 pp. \$2.50 postpaid

BUREAU OF PUBLICATIONS

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York

- Jones, Arthur J., Grizzell, E. D., and Grinstead, Wren Jones. **Principles of Unit Construction.** New York: McGraw Hill, 1939. Pp. x, 232. \$2.00.
- Keliher, Alice V., Hess, Franz, LeBron, Marion, and Modley, Rudolf. **Movie Workers.** Pp. 56. Both \$1.00.
- Textile Workers.** Pp. 56. New York: Harper, 1939.
- Land of Liberty: The United States, A Regional Study.** New York: Scholastic Corporation, 1939. Pp. 127. (10 or more copies to one address 40c, 50 or more 35c.)
- Michener, James A. **The Future of the Social Studies: Proposals for an Experimental Social-Studies Curriculum.** Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Council for the Social Studies, Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, 1939. Pp. 178. \$1.50.
- Motion Picture Project, American Council on Education. **Films on War and American Neutrality.** Washington: American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, 1939. Pp. ii, 44. 25c.
- Murphy, Frank. **In Defense of Democracy.** With Introduction by Charles A. Beard. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1721 Eye Street, 1939. Pp. 15. 10c.
- National Council for the Social Studies. Tenth Yearbook, "In-Service Growth of Social Studies Teachers." Burr W. Phillips, Editor. Cambridge, Massachusetts: National Council for the Social Studies, Lawrence Hall, Harvard University, 1939. Pp. v, 187. \$2.00.
- Ogg, Frederic Austin. **European Governments and Politics.** 2nd ed. New York: Macmillan, 1939. Pp. viii, 936. \$4.25.
- Pringle, Henry F. **The Life and Times of William Howard Taft.** Vol. I and II. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1939. Pp. xii, 555 and viii, 1106.
- Reynolds, Rollo G. **The Idea of Democracy.** Social Science Worksheets and Teacher's Manual to be used in connection with "Ideas That Came True." New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1939. Both 10c.
- Ross, E. J. **Fundamental Sociology.** Milwaukee: Bruce, 1939. Pp. xiv, 698. \$3.00.
- Rowalt, E. M. **Soil Defense of Range and Farm Lands in the Southwest.** Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. 51. 10c.
- Rule, Glenn K. **Land Facts on the Southern Plains.** Pp. 22. 30c. **Conserving Corn Belt Soil.** Pp. 59. 15c. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1937.
- Schneider, Franz. **Students Examine Their Professors: A Student-Reaction Plan at Work.** Berkeley, California: Pestalozzi Press, 1939. Pp. 32. 35c.
- Scott, James Brown. **Law, The State, and the International Community.** Vol. I, A Community on the Development of Legal, Political, and International Ideals. Pp. xxiv, 613. Vol. II, Extracts Illustrating the Growth of Theories and Principles of Jurisprudence, Government, and the Law of Nations. Pp. 401. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1939. \$8.75 a set.
- Shoen, Harriet H., and Hunt, Erling M. **Sidelights and Source Studies of American History. Book One, From the Time When the First Europeans Came to the New World to the Close of the Civil War.** New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. v, 103. 95c.
- Slavson, S. R. **Character Education in a Democracy.** New York: Association Press, 1939. Pp. xii, 226. \$2.50.
- Tanner, Maude M. **Billy Forget-Me-Not.** Chicago: Follett, 1939. Pp. 54. \$1.00.
- Tead, Ordway. **New Adventures in Democracy: Practical Applications of the Democratic Idea.** New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw Hill, 1939. Pp. xi, 229. \$2.00.
- Tyler, I. Keith. **Spelling as a Secondary Learning: The Extension of Spelling Vocabulary with Different Methods of Organizing and Teaching the Social Studies.** New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1939. Pp. ix, 116. \$1.60.
- United States Department of Agriculture, Soil Conservation Service. **Soil Conservation and Related Subjects: A List of Publications and Conservation Charts.** Washington: United States Department of Agriculture. Pp. 13.
- University of Southern California. **Abstracts of Dissertations for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy: With the Titles of Theses Accepted for Masters' Degrees.** University Chronicles Series. Los Angeles: Univ. of California Press, 1939. Pp. 146.
- Williams, J. Kerwin. **Grants-In-Aid Under the Public Works Administration.** New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1939. Pp. 292. \$3.75.
- Wilson, Nena. **Ring: The Story of a St. Bernard.** Chicago: Follett, 1939. Pp. 64. 15c.
- Withers, William. **Financing Economic Security in the United States.** New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1939. Pp. x, 210. \$2.75.
- Wittke, Carl. **We Who Built America: The Saga of the Immigrant.** New York: Prentice Hall, 1939. Pp. xviii, 547. \$5.00.
- Works Progress Administration.
Coyle, David Cushman. **Depression Pioneers.** Social Problems, No. 1. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939. Pp. 19.
- Zimand, Gertrude Folks. **Child Labor Facts, 1939-1940.** New York: National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, 1939. Pp. 38. 25c.